The Nation.

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The Week.

THE most impressive aspect of the Democratic victory in the next House of Representatives is the fact that the party has a clear majority of the members elected in the Northern States, and does not need a single seat from the South in order to outvote the Republicans. Moreover, the Democrats have a majority of the members elect in each section of the North. In New England the Democrats have elected thirteen Representatives, against only twelve Republicans, and their total would already be fourteen, except that one candidate in Rhode Island, who had a good plurality, must run a second time, when a plurality will suffice. In the old "Middle States" of New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, the Democrats have elected 38, against only 31 for the Republicans. In the West, taking in the whole region from the Alleghanies to the Pacific, the Democrats and their allies among the farmers have 75, against only 42 for the Republicans. If we consider what is commonly called "the West"—including only the older States from Pennsylvania to Colorado—the Opposition have 74 members against only 27 Republicans. In other words, alike in New England, in the old Middle States, and in the great States of the West, the Republican party has become the minority party on the Congressional issue. Its losses have been heaviest in the States, like Massachusetts in the East, and Iowa, Minnesota, and Kansas at the West, which have been its strongholds.

A no less significant feature of the result is the fact that the Republicans would be placed in a minority in the Senate also of the Fifty-second Congress but for their admission of two Territories with populations of only 84,229 in Idaho and but 60,589 in Wyoming, their retention of the two Senators from the "rotten borough" of Nevada, with far fewer people than even Wyoming, and their corrupt capture of the two seats from Montana, which has just pronounced a verdict upon the performance by casting a Democratic majority. Not counting the four Republican Senators who have not yet taken their seats from Idaho and Wyoming, the Republicans have ten majority. They lose by Tuesday's elections one seat each from the States of New York, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Kansas, with the New Hampshire Legislature and its Senatorship still in doubt. Even with Montana's two seats unjustly awarded to the Republicans, they would have only 42 without New Hampshire, and 43 with that State, of the 84 seats after the 4th of March, 1891, if they had not secured four Republican Senators, and thus a total of 46 Republicans to 42 Democrats, or 47 to 41, if Blair has a Republican successor, by the gross injustice of giving the petty populations of Idaho and Wyoming as much power in the upper branch of Congress as New York and Pennsylvania possess. Moreover, for all practical purposes of legislation, it must be remembered that this Republican majority of two or four, as the case may be, includes three men who voted against the passage of the great Republican measure of the last session.

The popular wrath singled out for destruction nearly all the leading figures in the Republican riot in Congress at the last session. McKinley has gone down in Ohio; Cannon, who touched a lower depth than any other man in his subserviency to the Speaker and in exemplification of his policy that the House was "not a deliberative body," has gone down in Illinois; Rowell, who, as Chairman of the Elections Committee, led in the theft of so many Democratic seats that the Republican majority was swelled from 7 to 24, has gone down also in Illinois; Gear, one of McKinley's most powerful supporters in the Ways and Means Committee, who has been one of the foremost if not the foremost Republican leader of his State for more than a quarter of a century, having been twice elected Governor and twice elected to Congress, has gone down in Iowa; Greenhalge, who presided over the last Republican Convention in his State, and defended Quay morals in politics and McKinley principles in political economy, has gone down in Massachusetts. This is only a partial list of casualties among the leading lights of the latter-day Republican party who have crowded to the front to show their zeal for that kind of politics which takes no account of the Ten Commandments and the Golden Rule.

Conspicuous on the list of the slain in the great battle should be placed the name of John J. Ingalls, Senator from Kansas, and President pro tem. of the Senate, and author of the following celebrated statement of modern political ethics:

> "The purification of politics is an iridescent dream. Government is force. Politics is a battle for supremacy. Parties are the armies. The Decalogue and the golden rule have no place in a political campaign. The object is success. To defeat the antagonist and expel the party in power is the purpose. In war it is lawful to deceive the adversary, to hire Hessians, to purchase mercenaries, to mutilate, to kill, to destroy. The commander who lost a battle through the activity of his moral nature would be the derision and jest of history. This modern cant about the corruption of politics is fatiguing in the extreme. It proceeds from the tea-custard and syllabub dilettanteism, the frivolous and desultory sentimentalism, of epicenes."

There has never been any doubt that the author of this passage was a charlatan and a corrupt man. He has been more than suspected of having bought his seat in the Senate, yet he has been able to get that seat for three successive terms, and, though his most conspicuous characteristic as a debater is his foul mouth, he has been elected repeatedly to the Presidency of the Senate by the Republican majority. At last the "moral nature" of Kansas has shown sufficient "activity" to put an end to his career. A political revolution has taken place in the State, and a Legislature has been chosen which, according to the Chairman of the Republican State Committee, "is conceded to have an anti-Ingalls majority." It is believed to be too large for him to buy—a circumstance which will doubtless make "this modern cant about the corruption of politics" more "fatiguing" to him than ever. It will be an incalculable gain to the moral atmosphere of the Senate chamber to have this vulgar ranter tipped out of its Chairman's seat.

Although Henry Cabot Lodge secured a re-election to Congress, the fact should not be overlooked that his loss of votes was greater proportionally than in the cases of his beaten colleagues, Candler and Greenhalge and Rockwell; and that he would have been left at home if he had not had an immense partisan majority to fall back upon. In 1888 his lead over his Democratic opponent was no less than 5,294, while last week he received only 1,023 more votes than William Everett, who was, it will be remembered, nominated from without the district. If the regular Republican majority in the district had been no larger than the 2,027 which Rockwell had in 1888, or the 2,036 in Candler's district then, or the 3,220 in Greenhalge's district two years ago, Mr. Everett's brilliant campaign would have been crowned with the election which it so richly deserved.

The Republicans of Michigan have received a lesson similar to that of their brethren in Pennsylvania. They also tried the experiment of running for Governor a man who had been charged with breaches of trust while holding public office, and who had been unable to disprove those charges. In fact, he admitted some of the worst of them, and coolly took the position that there was no harm in using public office as he had done—that is, for his personal and private gain. He had taken public money and used it as his own, though the law explicitly forbade his doing so, but justified his conduct by saying that he had restored the money again and the State had lost nothing. This was also Quay's defence of his use of public funds. The people of Michigan, like the people of Pennsylvania, are obviously harsh in their views of this kind of official honor, for they have defeated the Republican candidate for Governor by about 10,000 plurality, reversing a Republican plurality of over 17,000 in 1888, when the present Governor was chosen, and a Republican plurality of over 33,000 in the election for Supreme Court Justice in 1889. Their total vote shows a great falling off, though there has been a large increase in population, their control of the Legislature

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is greatly weakened if not destroyed, they have lost four Congressmen—have received, in fact, the most crushing defeat in their history as a party.

The noteworthy feature of the election in Virginia was the fact that the Republican Machine, in accordance with directions from Mahone, ordered the negroes not to go to the polls. In no other Southern State do positive orders of this sort appear to have been given, but in few places did the negroes manifest any more interest in the result than in Virginia. The Savannah *News* says that one of the most noticeable features of the election in that city was "the almost total absence of the old-time country darky, who, in days gone by, firmly believed the Government would give him 'forty acres and a mule' if he voted the Republican ticket." As to the colored people generally, the *News* says that they "took very little interest in the election. Although there was a pretty large crowd of them about the polls all day, their apathy indicated that they cared nothing for either candidate. Some of them probably were expecting a distribution of 'boodle,' but if so they were disappointed." Now that the negroes in one Southern State have shown that they will stay away from the polls if a white boss tells them to do so, and in other Southern States have shown that they care little about voting anyway, it is to be hoped that we have heard the last of the nonsense about counting every negro as a Republican voter in every election if he be not bulldozed.

The most striking and encouraging feature of the post-election discussion is the moderation manifested by the victors. As a rule, the Democrats realize that it was not a triumph for narrow partisanship, and that the result imposes upon them serious obligations which must be discharged with an eye single to the public good if they would retain public confidence. This was the dominant note of all the speeches at the great celebration held in Boston on Thursday evening. "We meet," said Governor-elect Russell, "not to exult over a defeated opponent, but to rejoice that Massachusetts, true to herself, her traditions, and her glorious history, has declared to the country in emphatic voice that the people's law shall be used for their interests only, and that legislation shall be free from selfish and improper influences With true Massachusetts spirit, the people have declared that a party to win success must deserve it; must place principle above policy, patriotism above party, promote the public welfare, and serve the people's interests only. Upon this basis we have won success; let us not forget it in the hour of our triumph." In a like spirit Mr. Corcoran, Democratic candidate for Lieutenant-Governor, after referring to the fact that his party had carried the State for Governor and elected a majority of the Congressional delegation, said: "But while that is true, we should not forget that it is to the people of Massachusetts that we owe our triumph. It was not Democratic votes that determined this contest, but it was the votes of the people who forgot, or, rather, who did not forget, but realized, that there was a God in Israel outside of the Republican party." Mr. G. F. Williams, again, who defeated the Republican candidate for Congress in the Ninth District, said: "We are on trial. Victory is worse than defeat unless we stand the test." And Sherman Hoar, who defeated the Republican candidate for Congress in the Fifth District, said: "We have shown you what we can do in the campaign, and we have yet to show the people what we can do for their good as legislators. One word of caution. We want to elect Grover Cleveland; and when you hear that your legislators at the State House or your Congressmen at Washington have done a certain thing, don't be too ready to criticise and to sneer. We have got to keep faith, not only with the Democrats, but with the whole people, and we have got to prove that tariff reform, civil-service reform, and election reform are safe in Democratic hands." All of the speakers recognized that the victory had been won upon the issue made by Mr. Cleveland, and the loudest applause was given to every reference to his expected election to the Presidency in 1892.

The bearing of the late elections upon the next Presidential contest is obvious enough to all who are not trying to deceive themselves. As the Democratic victories were won on the issue which Mr. Cleveland forced upon his party and the country, the logic of events makes him the inevitable candidate of the Democrats when the same issue shall be submitted for final decision in 1892. The Philadelphia *Inquirer*, a plain-spoken Republican newspaper, puts the case very clearly when, after frankly admitting that "protection has suffered a tremendous defeat," it says: "The results of these elections draw the lines of battle for 1892. The widespread Democratic victory forces the Democracy into positive advocacy of advanced 'tariff reform.' If Pennsylvania and the other Republican States had maintained their position in the party ranks, the most prominent candidate before the Democratic party to-day would be Gov. Hill. But the Democracy can have little use for Hill now. Cleveland is thrust to the front by force of circumstances to lead the free-trade hosts, and the issue of '92 must of necessity be the same old struggle between free trade and protection." The *Inquirer* suggests the question: "With Cleveland leading the Democratic forces, who will lead the Republican side?" But it only answers it, Yankee-like, with the further question: "Does the situation point to Blaine?"

The *Tribune* of Saturday, in offering its public "things to think about," says that

> "Free raw material, free ores and coal, pig-iron, hides, leather and lumber, free wool and barley and farm products of all kinds, would mean the closing of a great many establishments now in operation, and the discharge of a great many workers in mines or forests or on farms."

The condition of the Republican mind about hides has been one of the curiosities of the late campaign, and fairly illustrates the amount of knowledge and deliberation which was brought to the construction of the McKinley Bill. Hides have been on the free list for about fifteen years, thus fostering an immense and prosperous home leather industry; but somehow many of the protectionists have never been able to reconcile themselves to the spectacle. During the passage of the bill, Mr. Blaine wanted to have a duty put on hides in order to furnish him with materials for his great reciprocity dicker with the South American States, and at one time it seemed as though Congress would gratify him; but the leather-men were too strong for him. Others have never been able to believe that hides really are on the free list. The *Tribune*, apparently, is one of them. The Scholar in Politics is another. He calmly told a Massachusetts audience during the late canvass that the Republicans in the last Congress had lowered the duty on hides. Another wiseacre named Fox, who was put up for Congress against Sherman Hoar in the Concord district, mentioned, as one of the foul calumnies concocted against the Republicans by "the British free-traders," the charge that they were going to reduce the duty on hides. As the audience tittered, some one on the platform had to pull his coat-tails and remind him that hides were now free. In like manner and for a similar purpose, we respectfully pull the *Tribune's* coat-tails, or whatever it is that passes for or serves as coat-tails in that tariff temple

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The "little tin god on wheels" that was circulating around the country starting tin-plate works here and there and hiring thousands of men, women, and children, has disappeared in a magical way. The Pittsburgh *Press* records his exit, and demands that the duty on tin plate, and also on metallic tin, be repealed. It is high time, for the Chicago packers of canned meats have decided to advance their prices one-quarter of a cent per pound to cover the increased cost of cans due to the McKinley tariff on tin plate. The price of tin cans in Baltimore has advanced from $2.35 to $4.50 per hundred. Of course, this is due in part to speculation—the speculation being due to the new tax, which does not go into effect till July 1, 1891. Everybody is trying to "load up" before that event, and the Welsh manufacturers of tin plate are consequently enjoying a phenomenal prosperity for the time being, at our expense.

Paragraph 383 of the McKinley tariff provides that "the duty upon wool of the sheep, or hair of the camel, goat, alpaca, and other like animals . . . which has been sorted or increased in value by the rejection of any part of the original fleece, shall be twice the duty to which it would be otherwise subject." When the first importation of carpet wool was made under this law, the Boston customs authorities decided that paragraph 383 did not apply to carpet wool. Mr. Arthur T. Lyman, the carpet-

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manufacturer of Lowell, Mass, although his own interests were promoted by the Boston ruling, wrote a letter, which was published in the *Commercial Bulletin* of that city, remonstrating, in the interest of good morals, against such a glaring infraction and defiance of law. He showed that paragraph 383 makes no exception of carpet wool, and that no other clause of the act makes an exception of it. The *Bulletin* concurred with Mr. Lyman. It was supposed that when the matter should come before the new Board of Appraisers, they would overrule the Boston decision. On the contrary, they sustained it. They imported into the law a proviso that was never put there by Congress, and which, as it now turns out, the Committee of Ways and Means refused to put there when their attention was expressly called to it. This action of the Board of Appraisers was certainly freer trade than any tariff-reformer ever advocated, since it went to the length of lowering the tariff in an important particular in the face and eyes of Congress itself. The reason why this was done, the *Bulletin* tells us, was that an *understanding* existed in the Committee of Ways and Means that the Appraisers should rule as they have ruled on this clause, but that it would not be safe to make an exception of carpet wool in the law itself lest the wool-growers should get wind of it and kill the bill. This is the only explanation that has been offered for the extraordinary action of the Appraisers. We do not know whether these cool individuals who have undertaken to alter acts of Congress in order to carry out private understandings, are amenable to indictment or not, but they probably are amenable to impeachment.

The bad turn in Wall Street is evidently the result of the bad turn in London. Engagements had been made in that city to send large sums in gold to Spain and South America to rehabilitate the rickety finances of those countries. The drain on the Bank of England caused an advance in the rate of discount to 6 per cent., and with the probability of even a higher rate. This caused a drain on the Bank of France, and the latter institution stopped gold payments, as it has the right to do under the monetary system of that country, where the double standard exists legally, although silver is no longer coined. The Bank of France, when a drain of gold sets in that becomes at all inconvenient, redeems its notes in silver and then sells its gold at a premium greater or less according to circumstances. The bank cannot be blamed for taking this course, since it is required by law to receive silver at par. It cannot pay out better money than it takes in. Redeeming its notes in silver, however, does not stop the outflow of gold if the exchanges really call for an exportation of that metal. Gold becomes in that case a commodity to be bought and sold in the market along with other French property, and the question is simply whether the commodity gold shall be exported or the commodities wine, silk, sugar, broadcloth, etc.—those which are offered at the lowest prices relatively being taken for export. It is idle to attempt to forecast the present financial disturbance abroad, but it is easy to see that our own present trouble has come from the other side, where tight money has led to the throwing over of American securities in an almost unprecedented manner.

It is to be hoped that somebody's suit will shortly bring the Stanley controversy before the courts, to be made an end of one way or another. The "revelations" which now follow each other in rapid succession are extremely unpleasant reading, and settle nothing in the public mind. Who ranks whom, among Stanley's subordinates, as an authority about the rear column, is something the public outside is incompetent to decide, especially as each actor in the affair, from Mr. Stanley down, says he has not yet told all he knows. There are at least three versions now in the field, besides Stanley's own, namely, Troup's, Bonny's, and Jameson's, besides the version of the Barttelot family. The last touch, that Jameson had a girl killed and eaten in order to provide a cannibal scene for a sketch or photograph, is a slight advance upon a charge made during the Burmese war, that the officer in command had carefully grouped a lot of guerillas condemned to be shot, so that they might be effectively photographed at the final moment. This, we believe, was successfully answered; but "art for art's sake" is a terribly persistent and intrusive agency, and Africa owes it to the civilized world to provide sensations in reasonable quantity.

The Catholic Church in western Europe seems to be more and more definitely committing itself to socialism. The Catholic Congress at Saragossa went considerable lengths in demanding State intervention to settle the labor question, though not nearly so far as the similar gathering at Liége, from September 7 to 10. In the latter body, where many of the highest dignitaries of the Church were present, the advocates of State control were in a large majority, and their utterances and intolerance were decidedly radical. A letter was read from Cardinal Manning emphatically setting forth his well-known views. In one paragraph, where he seems to have inadvertently taken up Herr Liebknecht's pen instead of his own, he wrote: "It will never be possible to establish peaceful relations between employers and workingmen in an effective and lasting manner, until there shall be enacted a just and proper law regulating profits and wages—a law by which all free contracts between capital and labor shall be governed." However, such doctrines are not to be swallowed in France without some struggling. At the congress of Catholic jurisconsults held at Angers a month later, an address was made by Bishop Freppel of that city in which he strongly protested against "that wind of State socialism at present blowing in all western Europe." He specifically referred to Cardinal Manning's ideas, which he repudiated and attacked, declaring that to carry them into practice would be "to lay the hand of the State upon all forms of human activity." "In vain I ask," he said, "on what principle the State can prevent a man from working ten hours a day if he wishes to? Is it on the ground of the common good? But who does not see that in that way the door is opened, without the possibility of shutting it later, to all the demands of contemporary Socialism?"

All the churches are drifting more or less rapidly into the same position. The atmosphere at the late Church Congress in England to which we referred the other day, was full of it. It is one of the most deplorable consequences, humanly speaking, of the spread of scepticism among the working classes—that is, the absolute indifference of the poor, especially in the large cities, to religion and religious worship. They used to accept the promise of a heaven hereafter as a solatium for their earthly privations, but they refuse to do so any longer, and the clergy are forced, in order to have an influence with them or get a hearing from them, to promise them a heaven on earth, for that is what Socialism offers. The mischief which preaching like Cardinal Manning's does—that is, the social disorganization which it is likely to produce during the next fifty years—will probably be very great. The effects of it on the dock-laborers in London have convinced a great many who backed him up in that crusade, of the folly of their ways in that matter; but no man of the Cardinal's age is easily converted. The plan of "a just and proper law regulating wages and profits," like nearly all Socialist plans, assumes, as we have often pointed out, the existence somewhere in humanity of a stock of grace, wisdom, and understanding and of legislative and administrative talent which the world has not yet drawn on. Who is competent to draft such a law, and where are the saints who are to execute it so as to make the earthly paradise? Even Mr. Bellamy, perfect as his arrangements are, does not provide a general superintendent or Board of Control for his phalanstery. Three years ago there was a widespread notion that somehow the Knights of Labor had been specially consecrated for the work of regenerating at least American society, but in a very few months Satan was as busy among them with his varied assortment of deviltries as among the rest of mankind. The chiefs lied and stole, and quarrelled and failed, just like capitalists and brokers. The notion which some of the clergy are helping to spread, that human society can be improved independently of improvements in human character, has just as much promise and potency of social mischief in it as the invasions of the Barbarians in the fifth century. It may overthrow what we have, but it will take now, as it took then, a thousand years to put something decent and bearable in its place.

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SLAVERY AND THE TARIFF.

THAT all political parties which get into power tend to perish through pushing their principle to its extreme, is one of the commonplaces of history. Monarchy, aristocracy, and democracy have all had this bitter experience in some age and some State. We are witnessing now in this country a very interesting double illustration of it, in the curious parallel between the way the Democratic party after it became a pro-slavery party, and the Republican party after it became a protectionist party, rushed on their fate.

The first attitude of the Democratic party towards slavery was an apologetic one, as was the first attitude of the Republican party towards the high tariff. From a lamentable but inevitable fact, slavery grew in the Southern press and platform into an institution with some merits; then into the wisest possible provision for the education and civilization of the negro; then into a divine institution, for his benefit; then into the coming and most advantageous condition for all laborers, white as well as black. At first it was a mistake for the negro to run away from his master; then it became a piece of great wickedness; and finally his desire to run away became a disease, known as "drapetomania," and treated by the plantation doctors with appropriate remedies. First, slavery was a form of property peculiar to the South, and only defensible on the ground of necessity and properly confined to the slave States; then it became property *jure gentium*, sacred everywhere; then it became a form of property which it was the part of political and social wisdom to plant on the unsettled portions of the national territory. The institution, instead of being a relic of the past, became the form which labor was to take in all countries. Not only was the negro well off in slavery, but, as the Southern press preached between 1850 and 1860, the white laborer would be better off in slavery than he actually was, and the labor problem of civilized nations would undoubtedly be solved by his reduction to slavery.

These abstract views were faithfully embodied in legislation as fast as circumstances would permit. Opponents of slavery were treated as criminals hired by outsiders to disturb Southern society, in all the Southern States. The right of petition was denied them in Congress. The Fugitive Slave Law was passed in defiance of growing Northern sentiment against slavery; and, finally, the Kansas-Nebraska Bill was passed, in 1854, violating the Missouri Compromise, and opening over 400,000 square miles of virgin soil to "the peculiar institution." This was the last straw that broke the camel's back, or, in other words, the extreme which brought on the civil war, although the execution of the Fugitive Slave Law perhaps did more to bring home to the general Northern mind the arrogance and desperation of what was known as the "Slave Power." There was one insult to Northern intelligence which, however, no Southern orator ventured upon. No one came from the South to preach, on the stump, to Northern laborers, the new Southern doctrine that their condition would be improved by their being converted into slaves.

Turning to the tariff, we find that in all the earlier years of American history it was thought of and talked of as a convenient means of raising revenue and of encouraging small or "infant" industries already established. It existed in this condition, with various slight ups and downs, until 1861. In that year the Republican party took hold of it, still as protection for infant industries, but also as a means of raising the immensely increased revenue made necessary by the war. But it remained possible all through the war for a free-trader or low-tariff man to be a Republican, and the high duties imposed in 1861 were generally, within the party, thought of and talked of as war taxes, to be got rid of when the necessity which had called them forth had ceased. When the war was over, they became valuable securities for the payment of the enormous public debt. When the payment of the public debt became easy and certain, they were retained and increased as the only defence of the American workman against "the pauper labor of Europe," and the "infant industry" theory passed wholly out of sight.

Then it became discreditable to hold or ever to have held free-trade views. American politicians began to deny (in some cases falsely) having ever belonged to the Cobden Club. Then the Cobden Club appeared on the scene, as a malignant and corrupt organization, having for its object the destruction of American manufactures, and using immense funds for that purpose. Then all tariff-reformers became enemies of the United States, probably hired by foreigners to attack their industries. Then importers began to be treated as smugglers engaged in a disreputable business and proper objects of hostile legislation, and manufacturers as well as office-holders began to be called on (about 1876) for contributions to the campaign funds, on the ground that the Republican party really supplied them with their "bread and butter." Then the theory that protection was a national policy, to be framed by legislators, was abandoned for the theory that protection was a favor to be asked for by the individuals or firms who wanted it for their own products, and to be accorded on their own showing that they should make more money if they got it, and should lose money or go out of business if they did not get it.

At last, in 1888, the parallel with the Kansas-Nebraska Bill was made complete, and the manufacturers were boldly asked for immense sums, virtually as loans, to be repaid by increased duties on all commodities in which they were interested, or in which they promised, as in the tin-plate case, to interest themselves by and by, or at their earliest convenience. This broke the camel's back. It was the last extreme, which in politics so often brings ruin.

We must observe, in conclusion, however, that the protectionists have really gone further than the pro-slavery men. The McKinley Bill is very like the Fugitive Slave Law and the Kansas-Nebraska Act in being an embodiment of extreme views. But the pro-slavery champions never, as we have already observed, came North and took the stump to persuade Northern workingmen that they would be better off as slaves. The equivalent of this absurdity the protectionist orators have actually committed. They have tried on the stump to persuade American fathers and mothers of families that the more they paid for the necessaries of life, the happier they would be, and that the struggle of the human race from the dawn of civilization to obtain comfort at a low cost was a huge blunder. The force of nonsense could no further go. The insult to the popular intelligence was more than the voters could bear.

REPUBLICAN EXPLANATIONS.

IT is evident from the excuses and explanations which the Republican leaders and newspapers are putting forth regarding their defeat, that few of them have comprehended the real significance of what has happened to them. The almost unanimous view appears to be that if the McKinley tariff had gone into effect a little earlier, or the elections had not occurred till a year or so later, there would have been no defeat, but rather a glorious Republican victory. Mr. McKinley takes this view, and it is shared by many other party leaders and journals. It is worth while to put some of these utterances on record, both for purposes of comparison and to enable us to see how they will sound a few weeks hence.

Mr. McKinley says: "The people seem to have a wrong idea of the so-called McKinley Bill, as I have often said on the stump. It puts hundreds of articles on the free list, and only increases the tariff where it is necessary to protect American labor. I think in two years from now that its effects on the country will be so beneficial that the people will overwhelmingly endorse the Republican party." Senator Sherman says: "The McKinley Bill was growing stronger as the campaign advanced. It is a measure that is greatly misunderstood. It really reduces taxation, and while it increases the duty in some instances, its general effect is greatly to reduce the amount collected from customs. I think the workings will be found to be beneficial to the country, and when the people find this out, as they are likely to do before the next Congress is chosen and the next President elected, they will cast their votes accordingly." Mr. Lodge takes a similar view, attributing the defeat wholly to the passage of the bill on the eve of election and "the skilfully managed scare about high prices," which he declares "amounted to a panic." But he regards it as an "artificial panic about prices which shows nothing," still has faith in the bill, and expects a reaction in favor of the party when the value of the bill to the general prosperity of the country shall have been made plain. The Chairman of the

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Republican Committee of Indiana says that if Congress had passed the bill last June, the "scare would have been over before election," and he "confidently believes that in a year and a half from now the bill will be in high favor."

This is the prevailing view among Republican statesmen, but there are some dissenters from it. Ex-Speaker Keifer, for example, says it was the McKinley Bill that brought about the political revolution, and indicates his poor opinion of it by saying that if he had believed what some of the Republican stump speakers in Ohio said in defence of it, he would have voted the Democratic ticket. A unique view is held by one William T. Henderson, a Republican leader in Baltimore, who has no doubt whatever that the whole disturbance was caused by Republicans who "desired to administer a rebuke to President Harrison for the manner in which he had made Federal appointments," and especially for the way in which he has allowed "Wanamaker to name the men to be appointed." Mr. Henderson seems to have lost a post-office or something else that he expected.

The newspaper explanations are much like those of the party leaders. The most difficult of comprehension are those of the *Tribune*, which vary from day to day, as the editor succeeds in getting the "smoke of battle lifted from the field." On the first day after the election the smoke was so thick that he did not discover which side had been beaten, for he observed: "It is a marvellous thing that the new tariff has been so far sustained by the people, before its beneficial effects could be realized, and while all its real and imaginary burdens were fresh in the minds of men." He was also able to remark that, "in spite of the carefully cultivated scare about rise of prices, the people have shown that they not only adhere to the principles of protection, but heartily uphold Congress in a brave application of them."

After the smoke had lifted a little on the next morning, the editor discovered from the news columns of his esteemed contemporaries that there would be a Democratic majority of 150 or thereabouts in the new Congress, and that it would be difficult to maintain his position that the people wished to show in this manner that they "adhered to the principles of protection," and "heartily upheld Congress in a brave application of them." He admitted cautiously, therefore, on the second day after election, that there had been a defeat, and went so far as to intimate that there might have been scattered here and there throughout the country several Republican voters who, from "sheer laziness and indifference," had failed to vote. He rebuked these sternly for their discreditable conduct. He then admitted that there might have been some voters who "honestly misunderstood" the new tariff, and small wonder that they should, for it had been "carefully misrepresented" by "thousands of importers and agents of foreign firms who have been made angry" by it. After this guarded concession that there had been some effect produced, after all, by the high-price "scare," he concluded by saying that it was of very little account anyway, and that the day was close at hand when the new tariff would become a "very citadel of strength for the party." The awkward size of the Democratic majority in the new Congress was not referred to at all.

On the third day after election enough more smoke had lifted to enable the editor to say that it "does not follow because the good people fail to see the merits of a measure at first, that they will never see it," and then came this bold avowal that there really had been a defeat, of inconsiderable magnitude: "The party has been temporarily defeated, and the control of the next House seized by the Opposition; but the great measures which have been enacted, or are still before Congress, will inevitably promote the welfare of the country and make Republican success two years hence a certainty."

The course of no other Republican newspaper has been quite so cautious and diplomatic as that of the *Tribune*, possibly because few of them have editors in the diplomatic service. Nearly all of them attribute the defeat, which they unhesitatingly admit, to the "scare about prices." Some of them call it "working the tin-dinner-kettle racket," and all of them denounce it as a Democratic conspiracy of the lowest order.

It may be said, therefore, in view of all the explanations, that the Republican position after defeat is, first, that the party has been beaten because the wicked Democrats scared the country into a belief that the new tariff raised prices; and, second, that the defeat will not be lasting, because it will be seen very shortly that the new tariff does not raise prices, but does add greatly to the prosperity of the country. How does this agree with the position which Messrs. McKinley and Lodge took during the campaign, that the new tariff did raise prices, and for that reason was a cause for national rejoicing? It will be noticed that Mr. McKinley is abandoning this view somewhat now, and is laying stress upon the claim originally made by him that his bill adds a great many articles to the free list, and thus helps to make things cheaper. How can he point with pride to an enlarged free list after he has declared his belief that "cheap and nasty go together," that the "whole system of cheap things is a badge of poverty, for cheap merchandise means cheap men, and cheap men mean a cheap country"?

He must stand to his guns, and must maintain that the country will realize the full blessings of his bill when it shall have so forced up the price of everything that there will no longer be anything cheap to be bought. Then the people will realize how mean they were when they went about seeking "cheap merchandise," and will see that he only is a true patriot who never buys save at the highest possible price. Mr. Lodge will stand by him, for he is convinced that the "cry for cheapness is un-American." The country must be brought back to the Republican party by realizing its folly in getting scared at the prospect of high prices; it must be educated to the point of view that high prices are desirable, and that the whole civilized world, from the dawn of history down to the present time, has been insane in thinking they were not. Here is the mission of the Republican party, and it is one worthy of all its powers. On no other ground can the people be brought to a position to "uphold the brave application of protection principles" set forth in the McKinley Bill, for if that measure does not raise prices it is an abject failure, a false, lying, deceitful thing, designed to create a cheap and nasty country, filled with cheap men and women.

THE PENNSYLVANIA VICTORY.

No feature of the late elections is more encouraging than the defeat of Quay, through the rejection of his tool Delamater, in Pennsylvania. Full returns show that Pattison was elected Governor by more than 17,000 majority—and that, too, after allowing for thousands of fraudulent votes counted for Delamater in Philadelphia, where the Quay machine controlled the ballot-boxes.

Pennsylvania is the stronghold of the Republican party, and gave that party a majority of over 80,000 in the last Presidential election. It is a State where partisanship is always very strong, and where the independent voter has uncommon obstacles to overcome. Moreover, it is the commonwealth which has always been the chief beneficiary of the protective policy, and which was believed to have been bound to hearty support of that policy this year by the passage of the McKinley Bill. The Republican managers made every possible appeal to the partisanship and cupidity of the Republican voters. They induced all the leading Republicans of the nation, from Mr. Blaine down, to come out for Delamater and Quay, on the ground that, to use Mr. Blaine's words, "if they can to-day elect as Governor of Pennsylvania as ardent a free-trader as President Cleveland himself, there may be no balm in Gilead that can heal that wound"; and again, in Mr. Blaine's words, "to give you a warning that as Pennsylvania votes on next Tuesday the nation may vote two years hence." They sought to frighten unwilling Republicans into support of Quay by arousing fears that Pattison's success would threaten their very livelihood; that, in the language of the Philadelphia *Inquirer*, "if Robert E. Pattison is elected Governor of Pennsylvania, the fires in the furnaces may as well be drawn and the great manufacturing industries of Pennsylvania may as well close their doors."

Despite all these appeals and "scares," and despite the obvious frauds in Delamater's favor in Philadelphia, the Republican majority of over 80,000 in the election of 1888 has been wiped out, and there is nearly 20,000 majority on the other side. In other words, tens of thousands of Republicans refused to go to the polls at all when Quay sought a "vindication" through the election of a tool, while other tens of thou-

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sands went to the polls and cast their ballots directly for the excellent candidate nominated by the Democrats. A more emphatic rebuke has never been administered to an insolent boss.

The most contemptible figure in this canvass has been cut by the Philadelphia *Press*, the leading Republican organ of the State. The *Press* was the first journal in America to tell the truth about Quay. In 1885, when he was seeking the nomination for State Treasurer, it hinted in plain terms at the gigantic thefts which it knew he had committed, and warned the Republicans that his candidacy would "take the lid from off the Treasury, and uncover secrets before which Republicans would stand dumb." Moreover, it knew the personal unworthiness of Quay's tool, Delamater, and told something of the truth about his dishonorable record before his nomination. Finally, it understood perfectly that Quay's forcing of the nomination of Delamater was as offensive an exhibition of bossism as was ever seen in our politics.

All of this the Philadelphia *Press* realized and confessed before the canvass opened. Now that all is over, it makes public proclamation of the fact that it knew all along what the issue really was, and which side every self-respecting Republican journal was bound to take. In a leading editorial article on Thursday morning, entitled "What the Verdict Means," the *Press* declares that "it has but one meaning, and the force of it is plain to all. It is a repetition of that revolution against personal and selfish domination of the party which eight years ago brought the party bosses to their senses and led to many desirable reforms in party methods." It says that a Republican Governor would have been elected by the usual Republican majority "could a Republican have been elected without committing the party still further to the undesirable methods of management which have put personal ends above party principle, and obstructed party sentiment with personal selfishness." It insists that the result "means that the sentiment of the party will prevail in its management, in the creation of its platforms, and the making of its nominations. It is an organization whose traditions and purposes will not permit it to be used for the selfish ends of political traders and bosses; and as in the past, so in the future, if occasion should arise, this lesson is very certain to be taught."

Every word of this is "true as preaching," but in what a disgraceful position does it, by its own confession, leave the *Press*. It knew that Delamater could not be elected "without committing the party still further to the undesirable methods of management which have put personal ends above party principle, and obstructed party sentiment with personal selfishness"—and yet it threw all its influence in favor of thus committing the party! It knew that the defeat of Delamater was essential in order to have "the sentiment of the party prevail in its management, in the creation of its platforms, and the making of its nominations"—and yet it threw all its influence against having the sentiment of the party thus prevail! It knew that "the traditions and purposes of the party will not permit it to be used for the selfish ends of political traders and bosses"—and yet it threw all its influence in favor of these political traders and bosses!

The weak victim of an infirm will who has earned the contempt of all who know him, sometimes confers a benefit on society by serving as a "horrible example." Henceforth, when American journalists wish to cite a "horrible example" of a newspaper's cringing servility to political bosses whom it understood and despised, they will recall the course of the Philadelphia *Press* during the political campaign of 1890.

AUSTRALIAN LABOR DIFFICULTIES.

SYDNEY, October 1, 1890.

THE strike of the laboring classes at present prevailing through all the Australasian colonies presents one feature never before seen in any contest between labor and capital in any part of the world. The workingmen do not ask higher wages or shorter hours. To comprehend their demands, one must understand something of the conditions under which they have been laboring.

Every class of labor has its union, with laws more rigidly enforced than the criminal code of any existing government. A member becomes a *unionist* first, a *citizen* afterwards. The immense power of these organizations over their members has but lately been strained to its fullest extent. One of the largest, but perhaps least successful, unions is that of the sheep-shearers, and though in reality the most directly concerned in the strike, it has been the last to cease work. The arbitrary character of its rules leads many sheep-owners to employ only shearers who are not members of the Union. The pay is the same, and the conditions probably quite as favorable to the men, as under the Union. The work is hard and remuneration high—one pound per 100 sheep shorn, whether by hand or by machine (a good man will easily despatch 120 to 150 sheep per day), lodging free, food at actual cost.

To compel all sheep-owners to employ only Union shearers was the open platform of all the labor organizations this year, and to that end the wharf-laborers had decided not to handle, or put on board any ship, a single bale of non-union shorn wool. The large wool firms and *shipping agents promised their clients*, the sheep-owners, that their wool should be shipped, however shorn. This was the real issue to be fought out, though not the immediate cause of the conflict.

A month before any wool had come down, the officers of the coasting steamers applied for higher pay. The owners were ready to consider their request and make substantial advances, but first required that the officers' union should not affiliate with any labor union, holding that the officers were their agents and representatives, and must be in no way connected with any organization of men whom they had to command. This the officers would not agree to, feeling that only by joining the labor unions could they coerce their employers into conceding what they deemed their rights. They therefore at once left their ships. Other officers, non-unionists, were engaged in their places, with the immediate result that all seamen, firemen, cooks, and stewards declined to work on any ship that carried "blackleg" officers. Complete non-union crews were engaged. The wharf laborers refused to handle cargo. Non-union men were engaged here too. Then acts of violence and intimidation began, and many of the new men were afraid to continue work, being practically coerced into joining the unions.

The most serious difficulty became the coal supply. Nearly all the coal used in the different colonies comes from the mines in Newcastle, N. S. W., and is carried thence by large steam colliers. The coal-miners had a most disastrous strike about two years ago, and then returned to work on a definite understanding that all future difficulties were to be referred to arbitration. When the first of the non-union steamers reached Newcastle, the miners refused to work if the coal they cut was to be supplied to her. The owners immediately closed all the mines. Military protection was required to secure the loading of the coal already at the wharves. When this arrived at Melbourne, the gas-stokers refused to use it, and all were discharged. For three nights the city was in darkness, then the supply was resumed with non-union men, who had to live inside the works to escape violence at the hands of the displaced unionists.

Owing to scarcity of coal, reduced time-tables came into effect on the Government railways. Many factories had to be closed, as neither coal nor timber could be supplied, the Broker Hill silver mines had to be shut down and 10,000 men were rendered idle—all Unionists, with no possible interest in the matter at stake.

In spite of all these efforts of the labor unions, work was still going on; a few coast steamers were running, deep-sea ships were being loaded. Sydney had become the central battle-field, and there all the teamsters, in whatever employ, were coerced into ceasing from work. The owners of the produce arriving by the railways (and by this time wool was beginning to come down) themselves drove the carts through the streets, escorted by a guard of mounted troopers, special constables, and police, and accompanied by a hooting mob. Arrived at the wharves, stone-throwing began; the Riot Act was read, and a charge by the troopers dispersed the crowd. So far, this has been the only instance of violence on a large scale, though the delivery carts of many of the private firms, driven by non-unionists, had to be escorted by troopers on their rounds. Euchred again in their attempt to stop all commerce, the committee managing the strike decided to call out all the shearers. In the majority of cases this call has been obeyed, probably 20,000 men ceasing work, and a strange result follows. Those employers who had gone into the Union are the ones to suffer, while their neighbors, who had all along resisted the unions and employed non-union labor, will be as well off as ever. Their sheep will be shorn, their wool shipped, passing through non-union hands only. It will reach a market less well supplied than usual, and probably command an enhanced price for that very reason. In many districts shearing was just beginning, and as the men had signed formal agreements to do the work, legal prosecutions will naturally be undertaken. The loss to the sheep-owner is not merely a year's income: through going unshorn his sheep naturally deteriorate, and in many cases disease will follow at once.

Thus the laborers, or, rather, their leaders, seem to have struck their last blow. If this fails, as in all human probability it will, they have nothing further to try. From its beginning, all affairs relating to the strike have been managed by conferences of labor delegates, one or more from each union, forming

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Trades-Hall Committees in each colony. From these, also, delegates have been sent to a central or intercolonial conference which is sitting in Sydney, and takes supreme control as a powerful upper house of the labor government. Shrewd, prosperous, intelligent men these delegates are—*seldom mere demagogues*; for the most part convinced of the justice of their cause, and ready to risk all they possess in the effort to raise the class they belong to; holding that the laborer is entitled to a larger share of the product of which his labor is an element; blinded to the importance of the element which capital contributes. Always on the side of law and order, they have done much to maintain order while so many idle men were in the streets, angered by seeing their places filled by others.

The power in the hands of these men has been enormous; what wonder if it turned their heads? They have gone much too far. With no just cause for the strike from the first, public opinion is not on their side. Their funds must soon be exhausted, for in their efforts to bring matters quickly to a crisis they have burned their ships, cut off their own supplies. By calling out every class of labor, they have left no one to contribute to the support of the non-workers. Strike-pay so far has been issued at 10s. to 30s. per man per week. Rich though the unions are, they cannot long stand this.

The strength of the unions lies in their organization more than in their numbers. When fear of violence is removed, it proves comparatively easy to fill the places of the strikers. Probably not more than one-quarter of all the workingmen in the colonies belong to unions, and fully an equivalent of this number can be found from those at times unemployed. To prevent non-unionists from working to secure the means of existence, barracks were opened and food and lodging provided for all who would ask for it. Soon all the miserable loafers of the community were living at the expense of the laboring classes. This scheme proved ineffectual, and was too costly to be continued. In Melbourne half a crown a day was paid any non-unionist who would agree not to work.

Seeing the great power arrayed against one class of employers of labor, other classes became alarmed. A union of employers resulted, far more universal than that of the laborers, and far stronger in that it can wait idle indefinitely, without fear of actual physical suffering. Already the workmen are beaten, but they are not likely to give in for some time yet. They are anxious for a conference with their employers. This the latter decline, saying there is nothing to confer about; the men made no demands that can be granted to insure a settlement. To meet them would be to yield the very point at issue, namely, an employer's right to hire or discharge whom he pleases. The employers are ready to take back their old men so far as possible at the same rates of pay as previously, but naturally must decline to discharge those who have come to their help when their old hands left them.

To forestall the sending of contributions from London in return for the heavy subscriptions sent from Australia to the London dock-laborers' strike (nearly £40,000), the employers have had published in the London dailies the rates of wages paid here. All are per day of eight hours. Sailors earn, including over-time, £10 per month; firemen £9, trimmers £7, cooks £10, stewards £9, all "found"; gas-stokers 70s. per week, wharf-laborers 10s. per day, with 50 per cent. advance for overtime; coal lumpers 2s. per hour, with 3s. for over-time, permanent employment. In Sydney there are many restaurants where excellent meals, including soup, roast, and pudding, can be had for 6d.; a good bed, 6d. Thus, one hour's work provides a coal-lumper with food and lodging such as his poorer brother in England never dreams of. In face of these facts it seems hardly likely that much money will come from the older countries to help the laborers here in their efforts to become even greater tyrants than in the past.

Two lessons are clearly pointed by this strike. Labor unions will pay no regard to the engagements they or their members may have made previously, if a strike is mooted—a perfidy they would be the first to complain of on the part of their employers. Shearers and coal-miners each completely broke faith. To have fair promise of success, a strike must not take in all classes of labor, nor as yet can combined labor hope to fight successfully capital combined against it. Doubtless the laborer has taught his master the lesson of combination, but it is one the latter is not likely to forget and is certain to improve on. Never has trades-unionism reached such a perfect stage as in Australia, and never has it, to all appearances, invited such a defeat as it is now likely to receive.

J. E. Bullard.

A SCOTTISH UNIVERSITY LECTURE-ROOM.

Edinburgh, October 24, 1890.

To one familiar with the decorousness of a Harvard class-room, a lecture in Edinburgh University is in strange contrast. It is the custom here for the professor to open his courses with an address apart from the subject of the immediate purpose of instruction, and intended, as it were, to give the collegiate constituency some taste of his quality, preparatory to the enrolment of his classes. I had to choose the other day between hearing Geikie, the well-known author of 'The Ice Age,' and Masson, perhaps even more famous as a Miltonian, for their addresses came at the same hour. I was sitting in the Librarian's office, where I could look across the stately courtyard of the University building to the door which led to Masson's room. As the hour approached, one of the uniformed servitors of the University stationed himself without the doorway, a sort of guardian of the precinct, and a few students had entered when I was prompted to join them. The room was the usual academic theatre, with a steep, uncomfortable, circular range of seats, in which I anticipated much discomfort for an hour, but the interest of the occasion made me forget it. The students trooped in rapidly, making a heavy tramp, with which those in the seats joined. Somebody whistled a tune, and in a moment the whole hall was whistling in unison. As some popular fellow came along he was perhaps chaffed above the tumult. Then the whistle-tune changed into another, and as the number increased, and the tramp of the heels redoubled, the whistlers heaved their breasts to rise above it.

The hall was now nearly filled, and the servitor stationed himself within the door, and pointed out the few remaining seats to the still insurging crowd. Presently the whistling and the thumps subsided before the rising cheers, for the students of the outer ranges had espied the Professor as he left his anteroom across the entry. The rugged, manly form of Prof. Masson, with his Oxford cap atop his close-cut silvery hair and beard, and blue-lined black gown, nearly filled the door as he entered. The redoubled cheers shook the roof as he walked slowly up the steps and along the platform. He laid his cap on the table, and, with his manuscript in hand, leaning across the little desk, his other arm buttressing himself from the table, he looked unemotionally into the room, while the cheers went on. There was the beginning of a lull, and a pretty general hiss tried to suppress the few remaining cheers, and had almost succeeded, when the cheerers rallied, and the unearthly noise swelled once more. At last Masson raised his hand—the signal was enough, and a solemn silence came rapidly over the benches.

"Gentlemen," said the lecturer in a tender, delicate voice, deepened at the same time with a slight Scotch broadness, and every ear was alert. He began by a reference to the loss which the University had sustained in the death during the vacation of Sellar, the eminent Latinist, and, after paying an emotional tribute to his friend, Prof. Masson passed on to the subject of his lecture. This was Scott's diary of his later years, whose publication is now impending, and which, during its passage through the press, had fallen under the scrutiny of the lecturer. Masson's manner is well calculated to elicit the responsiveness of the youthful nature. He gives the sure signs of his culminations, and forewarns his hearers. His gestures are few, and almost always a clinching of the fist to mate his energy, and the swing of it from the front behind. The outbursts of the students' applause, therefore, could be easily foreseen for a minute. When he referred to any blight upon Scott's happiness, the whole room seethed with a sort of wail of commiseration, amid which there was an accentuated *tut-tut-tut*. He referred to the common parallelism which was made in Scott's day between him and Shakspere; and when he cited from the unpublished diary Scott's own comment on this habit, "Shakspere—not fit to brush his brogues," the hall burst into a tumult of applause. The lecturer went on to discuss the fluent methods of Scott and Shakspere, and called them, though different in kind, the most remarkable in literary history; not (he added) that the habit of fluency and speed is safe for lesser writers, or for *you* (with emphasis)—and the students burst into a roar of laughter. It was interesting to remark how, after one of these outbursts, the audience to a man settled down at once into the closest attention.

The straightening of the lecturer's broad figure and the illumination of his face showed that the close was at hand; and as he finished with saying, that with all the difference of the two men, the Scot and the Englishman, and however inferior the modern was in many respects to the earlier, there was no impropriety in leaving in his hearers' mind the figure of the Scottish Shakspere in Walter Scott, a tumult of applause followed. The lecturer slowly placed his manuscript in his portfolio, took up his cap, and, bowing slowly, with but a slight inclination, turned to leave the platform. An eager student rushed for the door before him. "Shame! shame!" and a hurried hiss prevented others from following, and a still and deferential air settled upon the standing audience, as the Professor was allowed to lead the way out.

I stepped for a moment into his anteroom, and there I found him at a table, busily engaged registering the thronging students. It was no time for more than a word, and I left the place with the impression that though we may do this sort of thing with more outward decorum, many an American lecturer would fall behind the Scotchman in the heartiness of the sympathy which he establishes with his hearers. I chanced a day or two afterwards to

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mention this scene to Sir William Muir, the chief of the University, and his head began to sway from side to side. "Tradition, tradition!" he muttered; "I wish it were otherwise." I find on further acquaintance that there is more or less repression exercised by some of the professors, but the younger classes are in the main irrepressible. Some of the professors are indifferent to it; others seem to like it. There can be little question, I think, that to lecturers of the emotional kind, who throw themselves feelingly into their subjects, this active responsiveness serves to better their performance. I never chanced to see anything like it in our leading colleges, though I believe that in the Law School of the University of Michigan the uproarious element is under very little restraint. It may obtain in some degree in the less known colleges; and indeed the seemliness of quiet attention was not always observed at Harvard forty years ago.

JUSTIN WINSOR.

Correspondence.

THE LOBBY IN MASSACHUSETTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While the tariff is the absorbing feature in the political campaign, a tempest has also broken out in this State on the subject of the lobby. Hon. William E. Russell, the candidate of the Democrats, has forced the fighting, Gov. Brackett has been compelled to take up the issue, and two members of the Legislature, a Republican and a Democrat, have joined in the fiercest denunciation of the "third house." As this may be the first gun in the conflict with an enemy who has taken possession of the whole country, and will require a tremendous struggle before he can be dislodged, it may be worth while to consider some features of the situation. Of course the lobby is the same in Washington, in every State, and in every city hall in the United States; but as it has, I believe, first had in Massachusetts the honor of a special investigating committee and a report of the same, and as it is there that the first note of resistance has been sounded—a far-off echo of Lexington and Bunker Hill, and in a no less important cause—it may be best to place the local specimen of the *genus* under the microscope.

In doing this we must first examine the organization of the State Government. When the Legislature assembles, the House consists of 240 members, of whom the majority come there for the first time and very few have been there for more than one previous session. They are for the most part strangers to each other, ignorant of the forms and history of parliamentary business and of the affairs of the State, suspicious and liable to panic—in short, just in a condition to fall a prey to cunning manipulators. The first thing which this incoherent mass of units has to do is to elect a Speaker, the most powerful man in the Government, because he has the power of appointment of the standing committees which control all business. The career of Mr. Thomas B. Reed of Washington shows what the office may be made. The Speaker knows as little of the members as they know of him, and the natural course is to give the best places to those who have secured his election. Here the lobby steps in at once. If it can get a Speaker elected, it can get such committees as it wants. If it can get such committees, the game is in its hands.

The standing committees are now appointed and the work begins. Observe that not one single item of business has been got ready for the Legislature, so that the whole body has to sit idle for six weeks to two months (awaiting the proverbial tactics of Satan), while the committees are preparing some business for it. Every kind of measure on any subject, which any member may wish to introduce for himself or his friends, from the most important business of the State to the application of an individual for a change of name—all are sent to the committees without distinction and without precedence. Bills are piled up by hundreds and thousands, and the committees fairly stagger under the rush of people wanting to be heard. Around them has grown up a class of men, largely past members and Senators, who are not new or inexperienced in the business. The greater the confusion and turmoil of business, the greater their opportunity. They make it a point to acquaint themselves with every member, his proclivities and his weaknesses. They play into each other's hands. Not only is it their profession to promote legislation of the kind which is paid for, but to block legislation of any kind unless the parties seeking it employ and pay for their services; and they laugh at any unsophisticated person who imagines that he can get through any bill, even of purely public interest, without their help.

Their efforts are powerfully seconded by another circumstance: the State of Massachusetts is absolutely unrepresented in the Legislature. Neither the Governor nor any State official ever has any voice there as to policy or legislation. Whatever is done is the result of a struggle as to what interest or measure shall secure the greatest number of votes. There is no official leader, speaking on behalf of the State, around whom independent members can rally. When the reports of the committees come tumbling in at the end of the session, there is no State authority to guard the public interest. The lobby has only to work up one after another the local members, who have no direct interest and no authority at all to undertake the defence of the State.

What is the executive branch of the Government doing all this time? It is difficult to imagine a more false position than that of the Governor. The candidates are supposed to be nominated by two conventions of something like one thousand members each, but in reality are so by a small knot of politicians, who might just as well do it without troubling the convention to assemble. The candidates are called a Democrat and a Republican—names which have about as much meaning as the "greens" and the "blues" in the faction fights at Constantinople when the Eastern Empire was tottering to its fall; but the people have no choice except between these two. After election, unless the Governor chooses to join in a game of intrigue with the lobby, he remains a complete figurehead. He has no voice as to policy or legislation. He can send messages to the Legislature, but they are sent to the standing committees, and receive no more attention than the proposals of any member or even of any average citizen. He has the veto power, but it is as absurd as it would be in the hands of the general of an army who had a veto on tactics of the line officers. What sort of a government is that which has no power to say what shall be, but only what shall not be, done?

If the Governor has no control over policy, he has also none over administration. The chief officers of the State are all elected separately, and are wholly independent of him and of each other. As administration under such circumstances is impossible, the Legislature has set up a number of commissions, which are the real Executive of the State. They never come in contact with the Legislature, can never enforce or even urge a policy, they receive little or no pay, and their doings are shrouded in complete secrecy, except as to what they choose to tell. Impotence in the Executive, anarchy in the Legislature, and no responsibility anywhere—these are the ideal conditions for the development of the lobby.

The immediate cause of the present outbreak is as follows: There came before the Legislature last winter a number of petitions for a charter for an elevated railroad. That of the West End Company, the most powerful of the applicants, was progressing under full sail when Mr. Williams, member of the House from Dedham, charged that it was being carried by bribery on the part of the lobby. Both houses appointed committees of investigation, which were not very anxious to discover anything. The West End Company admitted that they employed the lobby, since that was the only way to get anything done. If it was a bad way, the Legislature ought to provide a better; but as it was, they must use what methods were before them. The report of the investigating committees said substantially the same thing. The West End Bill passed both houses and the Governor signed it. At the same time was rushed through both houses an act requiring all persons employing agents to procure legislation to register their names, to render a sworn account of expenses incurred thereby, and not to make payment dependent upon the legislation obtained—an act which will be about as effective for its purpose as would be an act forbidding men and women to marry.

As the campaign waxes warm, more and more light of a very curious kind is thrown upon the internal working of the lobby. While all the speakers join in denouncing and trying more or less to make party capital out of it, no one of them seems even remotely to suggest any practical remedy. If the causes are in the conditions I have indicated, relief must be sought in reversing those conditions by giving greater and more concentrated power to the Executive, introducing more of order and system into the Legislature, and enforcing more direct and individual responsibility in both. Without, however, dwelling upon that now, I have thought the incidents worth recounting as touching a matter of the deepest importance if not interest to the whole country, and which may occupy a large place in its future history.

G. B.

BOSTON, November 1, 1890.

A SLIP CORRECTED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Allow me to correct a serious arithmetical error in your comments on the census of the population in the current number of the *Nation*. A "gain of 59.51 per cent. for twenty years" is obviously not "at the rate of 29.75 per cent. in ten years," as you have it. In fact, a gain of only 26.30 per cent. per decade produces a gain of 59.51 in two decades. This correction very greatly reduces the discrepancy you point out between the average rate of increase in the two decades 1860–'80, and the rate of increase shown by Mr. Porter's figures for the decade 1880–'90.

Of course, this correction leaves quite unaffected the strong points you make against the result, resting on the checks to the natural growth of population, and still more to immigration, caused by the war and by the long period of industrial depression following the

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panic of 1873; checks which have had nothing corresponding to them in the decade just closed.

Yours very respectfully, F.

BALTIMORE, November 9, 1890.

Notes.

B. WESTERMANN & Co. will publish immediately Part i. of Volume ii. of Karl Brugmann's 'Elements of a Comparative Grammar of the Indo-Germanic Languages,' treating of wood-formation, root-formation, and inflection, with additions by the author since the German edition appeared, and with elucidations from the Anglo-Saxon contributed by the translator, Dr. Conway, of Cambridge, England.

The Seeger & Guernsey Co. of this city have in press a Spanish edition of their 'Cyclopædia of the Manufactures and Products of the United States,' for circulation in Mexico, Central and South America.

Worthington Co. have nearly ready 'A Boy's History of the United States'; and 'A Sister's Love,' from the German of W. Heimburg, by Margaret P. Waterman.

Chatto & Windus in London and the United States Book Co. in this country will bring out Mr. Moncure D. Conway's editing of Washington's "Rules of Civility," concerning which he has already written in these columns.

For the forthcoming volume on the Centennial Celebration of Washington's Inauguration (1789–1889), Mr. Clarence W. Bowen, Secretary of the Committees on the Celebration, desires information respecting portraits of the following members of the first Congress under the Constitution. Mr. Bowen's address is No. 251 Broadway, New York:

Theodore Bloodworth, North Carolina; Benjamin Bourne, Rhode Island; Jonathan Elmer, New Jersey; Theodore Foster, Rhode Island; George Gale, Maryland; Benjamin Goodhue, Massachusetts; William Grayson, Virginia; Samuel Griffin, Virginia; Jonathan Grout, Massachusetts; Thomas Hartley, Pennsylvania; John Hathorn, New York; Daniel Heister, Pennsylvania; John Henry, Maryland; Samuel Johnston, North Carolina; George Leonard, Massachusetts; George Mathews, Georgia; Andrew Moore, Virginia; Josiah Parker, Massachusetts; Thomas Scott, Pennsylvania; George Partridge, Massachusetts; John Steele, North Carolina; Joseph Stanton, jr., Rhode Island; Michael Genifer Stone, Maryland; Jonathan Sturges, Connecticut; John Walker, Virginia; Alexander White, Virginia; Paine Wingate, New Hampshire.

The Leonard Scott Publication Co., New York, add henceforth to the eight original editions of English periodicals which they supply to their subscribers, *Blackwood's Magazine*, by arrangement with the Edinburgh publishers.

A welcome awaits the new one-volume edition of the 'Poetical Works of Matthew Arnold,' just published by Macmillan & Co. in a style uniform with their one-volume Wordsworth. As the print is admirably large and the paper solid, a certain bulkiness could not well be avoided, and the poems fill 500 pages. A steel portrait of Arnold is prefixed, and his own notes are placed at the end. Doubtless, in time we shall have notes by another hand, and then we may hope to have the dates of the several pieces determined. This is often of no little consequence, and always of interest. Here and there in this edition the year is either given or inferrible.

Paul Hervieu's 'Flirt,' translated by Hugh Craig, as published by Worthington Co. in a handsome quarto volume, is embellished with numerous illustrations by Mme. Madeleine Lemaire. Her graceful designs partly mask, and also, it must be said, partly reinforce, this disagreeable story, on which a woman's art ought not to have been expended.

Possession without ownership may be exemplified for the thousandth time by any one who will purchase 'The Christmas Carol' of Dickens (New York: Brentano's). This edition, a fine quarto, reproduces in facsimile the novelist's original MS. of his world-famous story, for which MS. $1,500 was paid on its last change of ownership. The public of 500 admitted to share in the facsimile (250 copies being reserved for America) is all but as well off as the present owner of the MS., so far as the mere aspect of the handwriting is concerned, and better off by virtue of having the whole history of the 'Carol' interestingly related, in connection with the facsimile, by Mr. F. G. Kitton. Both Leech and Linton were associated with the first edition of 1843. The proceeds of it disappointed Dickens, but the popular favor continued, and the latest cheap edition has sold enormously at a penny. Dickens's "copy" is furiously rewritten and interlined.

'The Song of the Passaic,' by John Alleyne Macnab (New York: Walbridge & Co.), is a sincere tribute, in correct and respectable verse, to the chief river which heads in New Jersey, and whose meanderings bespeak the geological revolutions of the tract through which it wanders. The author justifies his love and praise of the stream by well-chosen photographic views, and has supplied a map of its course and tributaries, with statistics of elevation, besides a formal description and sundry useful notes to his own verse. The little book recommends itself to all who know the manifold loveliness of the Passaic watershed.

Mr. H. E. Krehbiel has now issued five volumes of his useful 'Review of the New York Musical Season,' containing the full programmes of all important entertainments, together with selections from the author's criticisms in the *Tribune;* and the success has been sufficient to warrant their continuance (Novello, Ewer & Co.). The issue for 1889–90 contains lengthy articles on "Parsifal," "The Flying Dutchman," "The Barber of Bagdad," "Don Juan," etc. The essay on "Don Juan" embodies some original matter relating to the American career of the librettist Da Ponte, the value of which has been recognized abroad. A novel feature is a list of choral works performed in forty American cities during the past season, and in connection therewith Mr. Krehbiel's article on "American Conductors and Choral Societies" is reprinted from *Harper's Weekly.* One of the most interesting chapters in the book is, as usual, the retrospect of the opera and concert season. The statistics provided show that Wagner maintained his superior popularity over other composers, the average receipts on Wagner nights being $3,582, as against $3,056 on non-Wagnerian nights. Speaking of the Patti performances, Mr. Krehbiel says: "The audiences were largely composed of curiosity-seekers, impelled by the desire to be able to say in the future that they, too, had heard the greatest songstress of the last generation of the nineteenth century. Considerable as the receipts were from the Patti representations, it is scarcely open to question that they were nearly or quite devoured by the 'off nights,' which were wofully neglected by the public (I was told on good authority that when Mme. Albani sang in 'Rigoletto' only $150 was taken in at the box-office), notwithstanding that, aside from the singing of Mme. Patti, they were far and away the most interesting and delightful entertainments of the season."

Among the large number of new books on musical topics which have lately been put into the market, none deserves a more cordial welcome than Mr. L. C. Elson's 'Theory of Music as Applied to the Teaching and Practice of Voice and Instruments' (Boston: New England Conservatory of Music). The first thirty pages are devoted to a condensed but remarkably clear summary of the principal phenomena of musical acoustics. Then follow fifty pages on the compass and functions of all the important musical instruments, with many interesting side-lights on the peculiar use made by great composers of certain orchestral combinations for producing definite emotional results; and the rest of the book is devoted to an elucidation of musical notation, the various forms of composition, etc. Mr. Elson is often very happy in his definitions, as in the following: "Counterpoint is the support of melody by *melody*, while harmony is the support of melody by *chords*." The concluding chapter contains some useful hints to musical students, *à la* Schumann; and on the subject of woman in music the author has this to say: "We have spoken of the musician throughout this book in the masculine gender; there have as yet been no leaders in the musical field among women. The chief cause of this may have been that they have studied music too entirely with the intention of *pleasing*, merely."

Mr. Frederick J. Crowest's 'Musical Groundwork' (F. Warne & Co.) is a book of about the same scope as Mr. Elson's, and it is well written and interesting, although a beginner will hardly find it as clear and logical as Mr. Elson's treatise. More attention is paid by Mr. Crowest to the historic side of the various musical topics, and the book in fact begins with a brief chapter on ancient music. His remarks on instrumentation and musical forms are too brief to serve as a useful guide. On p. 174 the misleading statement is made that "all ancient music appears to have been an unwritten art," whereas Mr. Crowest surely must know that the Greeks had two kinds of notation, one for vocal and one for instrumental music. But the chief fault of the book is that, like most English works on music, it treats the art as if everything of interest to be said about it came to an end with Beethoven and the period immediately following him. Thus, there is a special chapter of ten pages on "Progress of Orchestration," in which Berlioz, Wagner, and Liszt are not even named! Then there are four pages on the Symphony, while the symphonic poem, the most important orchestral form of our period, is entirely ignored. On page 230 occurs this extraordinary sentence: "Among modern *German* musicians, the most notable are Wagner, *Rubinstein*, *Liszt*, *Gade*, Brahms, Raff, and Joachim." The italics are ours. Has Mr. Crowest ever heard of Robert Franz, generally regarded as one of the three greatest song-composers the world has ever seen?

The involved character of the game and fish laws of the various States and of the Dominion of Canada is a source of vexation to those whose function it is to consult them frequently. Until the appearance of the comprehensive compilation called 'Book of the Game Laws' (Forest and Stream Publishing Co.), it has been necessary to be equipped with a large number of distinct volumes. It is proposed to issue in connection with this brochure, which will be published annually, three supplements, which will contain any changes in the laws that may occur during the year. The book contains the fish and game statutes of every State and Territory of the Union, where such are in force, and of the Dominion of Canada.

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The first calendar for 1891 to reach us is the Whist Calendar (Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co.), compiled by Robert Fuller. It consists of the customary ornamental backing, with a pad for the several days of the year. The selections are all pertinent to the game, and mostly from well-known writers upon it, but occasionally the Scripture, Marcus Aurelius, or Shakspere is levied upon with good effect.

The October *Bulletin* of the Boston Public Library contains a list by centuries of the purchases made for that institution at the sale of the Barlow Library last February, beginning with the great prize which caused so much discussion, the Latin edition of Columbus's letter to Raphael Sanchez announcing his discovery of the New World "supra Gangem" (1493). This eight-page letter is reproduced at the end of the *Bulletin* by the heliotype process, accompanied by Major's translation.

In the *Bollettino* of the Central National Library at Florence of October 15, mention is made of a new 'Guida della Stampa Periodica Italiana,' by Nicola Bernardini, to which Prof. Bonghi furnishes an introduction. The work embraces the journalism of the peninsula, past and present, the press legislation, the features of provincial journalism, and Italian papers published in foreign parts.

We learn from Dr. Murray that reading may yet be done on this side of the water for the Philological Society's 'New English Dictionary,' of which he is the controlling spirit. He instances Fynes Moryson's 'Description of Ireland' which we lately cited in Prof. Morley's reprint in the "Carisbrooke Library." He adds that his monumental enterprise is hampered by the want of funds to buy books to be read for quotation. It would be honor cheaply earned for some wealthy American to bestow $500 or $1,000 annually by way of endowment for this purpose.

Mr. H. H. Johnston, the well-known African traveller, has contributed to the London *Graphic* two illustrated articles on "Nyasaland," which have some points of peculiar interest. He draws a charming picture of Blantyre, the home of the Scotch missionaries in the Shiré Highlands. A part of the elevated plateau between the two lakes, now nearly depopulated by the native wars, he regards as well adapted to European colonization. It is an "African Devonshire, with its red soil, its rounded hills, covered with short green turf, its many rills and rivulets," the only un-English sight being the banana groves. "At night the temperature is cool and crisp; even during the day the heat of the sun is only that of an English summer." Mr. Johnston's account of the East African Arab is especially noteworthy, as being contrary to the general impression that he is always a slave-trader, and chiefly responsible for the decimation of central Africa. He believes that though the most of them buy slaves from the negro raiders, the Masai or the Angoni, for instance, they would cease to do so if a legitimate commerce was opened to them. In fact, they would readily join the European in subduing and taming the savages whose raids are the cause of most of the misery and bloodshed in Africa. Mr. Johnston characterizes them as an "eminently sober people, industrious, enterprising, and in many respects not unreasonable," who as colonists and soldiers may prove very useful allies in the development of the Continent.

The *Bulletin* of the Société de Géographie contains an article by M. E. Blanc, which is important as indicating the policy of France with relation to the Sudan. A detailed description of the great commercial routes from the Mediterranean to the south is preceded by a short account of the physical difficulties to be surmounted by the caravans. The only parts of the desert which are practically impassable are the great plateaus or hamadas. These are elevated plains covered with hard, angular stones, apparently of the same size, and forming a bed generally as thick as the diameter of a single stone. These curious formations, resulting entirely from the action of the wind, as he claims to have proved from actual experiment, are the only parts of the Sahara absolutely without water. From M. Blanc's description, aided by an outline route map, it is evident that both Algeria and Tunis have very few ways of reaching the south, while both Morocco and Tripoli are well provided with them. The French possessions are practically cut off from the south, partly by the nature of the desert on their frontier, and partly from the fact that all the natural routes beyond these frontiers are in the hands of the Moors and Tripolitan Turks, or of natives hostile to the French interests. Within the past twenty years Turkey has consolidated its power in Tripoli and extended the limits of the province far to the west. In this way it has absorbed the whole of the "Hinterland" of Tunis, and thereby diverted all its trans-Saharan trade to Tripoli, where three or four caravans, numbering sometimes 2,000 persons, arrive every year, besides smaller fortnightly caravans coming from a less distance. While disclaiming any intention on the part of France to possess itself of Tripoli, M. Blanc protests against this extension of her frontiers, and asserts that the two important points of Rhadames and Rhat, lying to the south of Tunis, and now garrisoned by Turks, France must and will have in order to sustain commercial relations with the Sudan. But it is inconceivable that any appreciable amount of trade from the rich Mohammedan kingdoms of the central Sudan, except that in slaves, which now constitutes practically the whole of the traffic between the Sudan and Morocco and Tripoli, would cross the desert in preference to seeking the vastly nearer route by the River Niger; and the most important of these kingdoms have lately concluded treaties with the Royal Niger Company for a monopoly of trade.

— The new Library edition of 'Milton's Poetical Works' (Macmillan), by Prof. Masson, in three beautifully printed octavo volumes, contains some new matter, and exhibits some changes in arrangement. The poems are printed in chronological order for the first time; a memoir is introduced, admirably adapted to its purpose; the minor introductions are revised, and a short paper on Milton's handwriting is added. The most important change is the insertion, in the introduction to 'Paradise Lost,' of a full discussion of the indebtedness of the poet to previous writers upon the same or allied subjects, and in particular to Vondel. We reviewed the question in our notice of Mr. Edmundson's monograph on Milton and Vondel at the time of its appearance, and Prof. Masson's searching examination of the alleged parallelisms can only strengthen the opinion then expressed. He does not find any evidence of Milton's direct borrowing, nor any proof that the poet had read Vondel; but, in deference, apparently, to Mr. Gosse's opinion, he will only admit at worst that Milton had read the Dutch author, and that some echoes remained in his memory. He quotes, however, in a foot-note, Vondel's latest editor, Van Lennep, who says that he does not regard Milton's acquaintance with Vondel or his tragedy as proved. In our own judgment, Prof. Masson has gone further than he had any editorial warrant, in acknowledging the very slight obligation of a vague remembrance of Vondel by Milton as at all likely. The futility of the hope of editorial exhaustiveness is illustrated by the fact that this discussion of Milton's sources takes no account of the latest "precursor" of the poet, Avitus, whose claim probably had not been heard of when the essay was written. Prof. Masson adds also a translation of the Latin poems, meant to show their rhythm and substance, but not pretending to poetical excellence. Such a version is useful to the unlearned student, but it very faintly represents the beauty and grace of these poems. The notes are sufficient, and have been well-restrained within practicable limits. They are most full on geographical points; if more space could have been afforded anywhere, it would have been most welcome in the citation of the classical sources, where Milton's obligation is direct. Here the editor, we think, might have allowed himself more latitude. The description of the youths in 'Comus,' 291-302, for example, justifies a reference to Euripides's "Iphigeneia in Tauris," 267, *et seq.* In such matters, however, scholarship may indulge its own tastes too much. The edition is a very admirable one, and is much perfected by its revision. It takes rank in accuracy and care with the unsparing labor of the editors of Shakspere.

—It is a wonderful sort of enlightenment that one occasionally derives from popular purveyors of the *omne scibile*. For instance, in the 'Dictionary of Phrase and Fable,' by the Rev. E. Cobham Brewer, LL.D., we read, under the title "Juggernaut," of "King Ayeen Akbery"; the 'Âîn-i-akbarî,' or 'Institutes of Akbar,' a work of the celebrated historian Abulfazl, being thus hominified and accorded royal rank. Again, in the anonymous 'Dictionary of Every-day Difficulties,' published by Ward, Lock & Co., for which we are assured that "the best authorities have been consulted," the account given of Brahmans is a gem of the first water. "They take their title," we are told, "from Abraham, whom they called Brahma, and affected to imitate the life of the patriarch by living in deserts." To return to Dr. Brewer: according to him, the Brahmans "claim Brahma as the founder of their religious system," and a Brahman is "a worshipper of Brahma"—statements which the veriest smatterer in Hinduism, as set forth by writers of any credit, knows to be mere moonshine. Far from the least of the evils inseparable from the cheap multiplication of books is the spawning, by sciolists, of manuals professing to impart miscellaneous information. That, as a general rule, these artists produce no vouchers for what they advance is, of itself, a pretty evident proof that, provided it hits their fancy, whatever they have read, or otherwise picked up, if not, in their estimation, authentic, is, at any rate, considered by them as quite good enough to offer as fact to those who resort to their pages for instruction.

—We have once or twice heretofore made reference to a society formed a few years ago in England called the Association for the Improvement of Geometrical Teaching. It was a kind of organized rebellion against the tyranny of Euclid, who, from the revival of learning down to the middle of the present century, had reigned supreme in all English schools. This heretical conspiracy, which included some of the ablest mathematical teachers in England, originated in the conviction that the human race had made some progress, not only in the dis-

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covery of new geometrical truths, but also in the methods of teaching and in the construction of text-books, since the days of the Greek geometers. The Society first published a 'Syllabus of Plane Geometry,' which it afterwards expanded into a complete text-book covering the same ground as the first six books of Euclid's 'Elements.' To what extent this has been adopted in English schools we are not informed. That the Society has been in some measure successful may, however, be inferred from the fact that it is now extending its sphere of operations beyond the limits of pure geometry. Its last publication is a 'Syllabus of Elementary Dynamics,' Part I., treating of Linear Dynamics, with an appendix on the meaning of the symbols in physical equations. It is a small 4to of 39 pages, divided into chapters and sections, and containing the definitions and propositions of a regular text-book, and a designation of the places where explanations, illustrations, examples, and exercises should be inserted.

—The manner in which this syllabus was prepared will serve as a specimen of the method adopted by the Society in the construction of its publications. The Syllabus was first drawn up by Mr. R. B. Hayward, M.A., F.R.S., late President of the Ass ciation, formerly Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge, and now the Senior Mathematical Master of Harrow School. He submitted it to the members of the Association, and it was referred to a Committee, who, after due examination, reported it in what they considered the most satisfactory shape. Next it was discussed in full session by the Association, and finally adopted and ordered to be published as an authoritative exposition of the views of the Association as to what should be the form and substance of a text-book on 'Linear Dynamics.' Our readers will at once see the complete analogy of this process to the course of a bill in a legislative body from its introduction to its final enactment. We are not yet prepared to form an opinion as to how far this method of constructing a text-book will prove satisfactory and therefore successful. Mr. Hayward also prepared and submitted to a committee of the Association a 'Syllabus of Solid Geometry,' which met with their approval. Instead, however, of seeking what might be called its "passage" by the Association, Mr. Hayward preferred to develop out of it and publish on his own responsibility a regular treatise on 'Elementary Solid Geometry' (Macmillan). Heretofore nearly all the English schools have contented themselves with the first twenty-two propositions of the eleventh book of Euclid. Mr. Hayward's book is a 12mo of 130 pages, and is much more in accordance with modern modes of thought and methods of teaching than the portion of Euclid hitherto used. The first chapter, written rather for teachers than pupils, will prove of interest to advanced mathematicians, as will also the appendix to section v, "On Symmetry in a Plane and in Space."

—The *Levant Herald* of September 22 quotes a curious letter from Bjelina, in Bosnia, which discloses a state of things among the Bosniaks that recalls some of the old stories we used to hear about China. It appears that numbers of Bosniaks had recently applied to the authorities for permission to be beheaded in the place of Baron de Rothschild. The authorities at once set themselves to investigate the matter, and found that a rumor had been spread abroad among the rural population that Baron Rothschild had been sentenced to death for some crime or other, and that he would pay a million florins to any one who would become his substitute and undergo the penalty for him. Clubs were speedily formed among the peasants who desired to share the million, and each member bound himself to sacrifice his life for the benefit of his fellow-members if he should draw the fatal lot that designated one of the club as the victim. The money, of course, was to be divided among the rest as a prize. In this manner several substitutes for the Baron were provided, and they offered themselves to the authorities ready to fulfil their bargain to the last. No explanations were sufficient to convince them that the story was a hoax, and at last accounts new postulants for decapitation were still coming in, and still going away grieved and unhappy in their disappointment.

—The *Temps* of October 5 had something to say upon a question which has lately been touched in our columns—the lack of originality in the architecture of the present century. Laymen attribute it, the *Temps* says, to a lack of genius in the architects; architects, to the crude ideas of their clients, which are imposed upon them in a way that deprives them of all initiative. This last assertion may be held to have less weight when it is remembered that the French Government gives its architects much liberty of design in the construction of public buildings, and yet does not get markedly better work from them than individuals do. At any rate, both private and public buildings often show *banalité* even when they escape ugliness. The Exposition of 1889, notoriously, has given hope to some by attracting attention to the use of iron as a material. The group of architects who, under the direction of M. de Baudot, "keep up in the *Encyclopédie d'Architecture* the traditions of free research and independence of Viollet-le-Duc," are convinced that in this way distinction lies, and they have sent out an appeal to all French architects, and invited them to a free competition. Designs for buildings of any sort whatsoever, and of any material whatsoever, are asked for. Architects are to be constrained by no considerations but those of art, and may go wherever fancy leads the way. The jury is made up with a perfect eclecticism. All the designs are to be sent in before November 15; and when they are exposed, there will, no doubt, be an exhibition worth seeing for many reasons. One would say that whatever qualities it lacks, it is sure to have one which possibly its projectors did not most ardently seek: it is sure to be very *fin de siècle*.

A RUSSIAN TRACT.

Labor. By Count Lyof Tolstoi. Translated by Mary Cruger. Chicago: Laird & Lee; and New York: The Pollard Publishing Co.

Toil. By Count Leo Tolstoi and Timothy Bondareff. Translated by James F. Alvord. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel & Co.

THERE is very little choice between the above three editions of the work under review. The translations were made from the same French original. Miss Cruger's is the more easily read, the more flowing. Mr. Alvord's is angular, awkward, and inelegant, but keeps closer to the text, and retains phrases which Miss Cruger has omitted. Mr. Alvord's translation is also to be commended because, although, like the others, his wrongly bears Count Tolstoi's name before Bondareff's, it omits from both cover and title-page the false statement that the book has been or is "suppressed" or "interdicted by the Czar of Russia." The admission in the French translator's preface that the tract was printed in the journal *Russian Wealth* settles that question. The manner in which Count Tolstoi's name and this false statement are employed upon the covers and title-pages furnishes sufficient proof of the factors which were relied upon for success in the light of recent experience. Assuredly, nothing short of the factitious interest which at present attaches to the name of Tolstoi could ever have forced into print these utterly incoherent ravings of an uneducated, uninspired peasant. Count Tolstoi is in no sense the author. He has corrected the peasant Bondareff's orthography, and written a short explanatory preface, while the French translator devotes about the same amount of space to eulogy of the peasant's "simplicity" and "profundity," and to an elucidation of this simplicity in the peasant and in Tolstoi.

The doctrines of love, brotherhood, and the dignity of labor have been inculcated constantly since the opening of the Christian era. They have been admitted, in theory at least, by nearly every one who has meditated upon the subject. Count Tolstoi has been ripening towards them all his life; and such preaching is, moreover, his special inheritance as a Russian. At the fateful moment, he made the acquaintance of the sectary Sutaeff and of the peasant Bondareff. The three met at the cross-roads of theory and practice. In the argumentative works which Tolstoi has written since that time, he both claims that he is himself the discoverer of the hitherto unknown road to salvation, and confesses his obligations to his humble teachers. Hence there is nothing new in his remarks, and the sole interest lies in the date appended—that of March, 1888. As Tolstoi has already, in a later work, announced his change of belief as to woman's mission, one half of the immutable Scripture decrees, as interpreted by Bondareff and himself, is annulled. The other half may have been also abrogated in the same easy, infallible manner ere this. The reader cannot be blamed if he bears this fact in mind during his attempts to reconcile Bondareff's lucidity and profundity with prevalent standards, and to comprehend Tolstoi's statement that he has banished all repetitions and digressions to the appendix.

When one reads the dictum, "Labor for bread restores intelligence to those who have lost it," he will probably query a moment why Count Tolstoi himself wrote his best things before he labored with his hands instead of since. When he reads that Bondareff's words "are as obligatory to the believer in the Old Testament as to him who accepts the Gospel, to the man who rejects Scripture and relies on his own reason as to him who comprehends the truth of the doctrine," and reflects that these words inculcate the "labor for bread"—*i. e.*, raising grain solely—the reader is struck dumb with amazement. We may excuse the ignorant peasant, but can hardly excuse the educated noble, for not taking into consideration the inhabitants of the Arctic regions of dense forests and of deserts, where neither the thirty to forty days' labor which he pronounces sufficient (nor any other amount of time) would raise a crop. He should have explained that the forty days cover the peasant's period of work—haying, harvesting, ploughing, and sowing—in Russia. He should have prescribed rye as the grain to be sown, and sour black bread as the divinely instituted medium of salvation. The inevitable cucumber, fresh in summer, salted in winter, is also most unaccountably omitted.

But we must turn to Bondareff. Passing over the question as to how he came to be in Siberia, one may inquire: If he allows himself

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to be the righteous possessor of a small cottage and a bit of ground, as the result of forty days' work per annum, why does not he accord to others who are willing to take only eighty festival days' rest, and work 285 days a year, the right to own a larger house and more land? Surely, if labor constitutes salvation, the more labor the more salvation. Or should a Protestant, who may toil on Sundays also, and observe imperfectly only the four or five legal holidays imposed by the tyrannical American Government (all governments being tyrannical according to this theory), be forced to content himself with Bondareff's cot and plot? He lays great stress upon the fact that his text, "In the sweat of thy face shalt thou knead bread," occurs in the beginning of the Bible. Certainly, every one who is familiar with the peculiar reasoning of "inspired" ignoramuses will agree that it could not have occupied a more dangerous and inflammatory position—unless it had been at the other end of the Bible, in the Apocalypse, which also affords exceptionally fine opportunities for miscellaneous raving. If there be any force in this argument, everything between Genesis and Revelation may safely be disregarded. But what becomes of the permission accorded to Adam, in a still earlier verse, to eat freely of all things which had grown without the bestowal of labor?

Bondareff says that labor is perfect joy. But his railings at the rich, his demands to have restored to him his "stolen fortune" (his 11,500 rubles for twenty-three years' labor), his confessions of envy and hatred, lead one to the conviction that he would jump at a chance to renounce this joy and the salvation which, like all fanatics of his class, he is positive that he has secured, and embrace the vileness of wealth, like other preachers of labor and poverty before him. "Man is a hypocrite," he cries. "I now hate all men, and that is why I will not have them touch my coffin after my death." He declares that if a poor man sins, it is because he has shirked this *divinely* imposed toil; and he furnishes the corollary: "But educated and intelligent people avoid this labor. . . . *They* have *imposed*" (the italics are ours) "all labor upon the poor and weak, but these, in retaliation, do not sleep or lose their presence of mind: they steal, kill, burn, and defraud each other." Very true. And the moral?

After insisting that no one shall do anything but raise bread crops, and that nothing shall ever be sold or bartered, which evidently debars him from purchasing the fruits of unhallowed labor, he says: "The merchants raise the prices of their merchandise, and so make us pay the amount of the taxes"! He also forgets that no one forces the peasants to sell their surplus grain to the rich and so furnish the latter with a weapon of "oppression." His manner of suggesting that "the poor martyrs, laborers, should be delivered from a wearisome labor," does not seem to indicate profound faith in the joy or sanctity of Adam's curse. And he more than once intimates that he expects praises and rewards for fulfilling his divine joy, although he declares, "This labor is not difficult, but easy and useful."

He mixes up the condition of affairs before and since the emancipation of the serfs in the way which will best suit his own purpose. Three days a week was the legal maximum of labor for the proprietor before emancipation, and rarely enforced even then. If the peasant raises his finger for any one but himself nowadays, he gets the equivalent in arable land, pasturage, money, or what firewood he cannot steal. He admits that they all "work against their will." Paragraphs 124–5 are fine specimens of arithmetic, misstatement of conditions, and argument. According to Bondareff's own showing, from sixty to eighty days are amply sufficient for the support of a family for two years; hence, if it were true that he had but 155 days, he has twice as much as he requires. And the dozen children are not obligatory. Such exclamations as, "What brigand has stolen my fortune?" (money being accursed and useless), and "Oh! if the wrong they do us were only temporary, but it is eternal!" sound more like the inconsistent grumblings of a commonplace Socialist than the elation of a man condemned to perennial joy and everlasting salvation at the cheap rate of from thirty to forty days a year. "You see the effect this commandment can have," he says again. "Thanks to it, the old man becomes young, the feeble strong" (not true of your disciple Tolstoi, good Bondareff!), "the idle industrious, the imbecile intelligent" (not true of yourself, Bondareff!), "the drunkard sober" (not true of the peasants), "and the poor rich. . . . If the poor knew their own strength, they would not submit to such outrages. Man would then deliver himself from the indigence and misery which strangle him." Evidently, "the poor would become rich" by violence. And again consistency seems, to the ordinary intelligence, to be lacking.

Some of the other unexplainable mysteries are how Bondareff arrived at the peculiar etymology which makes *muzhik* mean 'beast' (one translation makes it 'stupid'), when it is simply the diminutive of *muzh*, a *man*, with literally not a letter of the other words in it; where he gets his allusions to the 'Arabian Nights,' Caligula, Darius's daughter with her serpents, and so on; and why he should acknowledge the right of the Czar, as an equal with God (after previous denunciation of all superiors), to judge the righteousness of his cause, when he insists that "God, bread, and the laborer" form the real Trinity. He admits that Christ did not labor himself, and "did not give precedence to the law of labor, because, from his infancy, he saw in it little virtue, and considered it to be a great misfortune"—whence he draws the deduction which might have been expected, viz., that he himself is the true and only Messiah, who has been preordained since the foundation of the world to discover the truth and preach it. Count Tolstoi, who holds the same conviction with regard to himself, as stated in 'My Religion,' neglects to comment upon this view of the New Testament doctrine.

We admit the dignity of labor, but we demand a broader interpretation than either Bondareff or Tolstoi supplies. The majority of people read carelessly, as a sort of "mental dram-drinking," or in obedience to the dictates of temporary fashion. Therefore, we have devoted valuable space to showing up a book which deserves no mention from its intrinsic merits. The conclusion of the matter is that discriminating persons have, in all probability, already arrived at the decision that the Czar of Russia must be a man of good judgment, whose condemnation, real or fictitious, is a sure indication of the bad quality of a book; and that Count Tolstoi's praises are equally final in the same direction, when the book deals with social questions.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

In the second edition of Mr. Justice Stephen's 'General View of the Criminal Law' (Macmillan), the original work, which appeared in 1863, has been thoroughly rewritten, and with the result, rare in the career of law books, that the new treatise (although it contains, as we are told in the preface, the essence of what the writer has learned during a long and greatly varied experience of thirty-six years as a barrister, a member of the Indian Council, an author, a draftsman, and a judge) is brought within two-thirds of the compass of the first edition. This condensation is due, in large measure, to the learned author's ability to make frequent reference, for a fuller statement of his views, to his well-known Digests of Criminal Law and Criminal Procedure and his 'History of the Criminal Law.' But apart from this gain in proportion, the new edition is an improvement throughout upon the original treatise. The historical introduction remains, as before, the least satisfactory part of the book. There is a certain vagueness in regard to several matters, and there are some inaccuracies, as, for example, the remark that the appeal of theft was soon disused; and the statement that the judges in 1482 made a rule of their own authority that persons indicted for murder should not be tried for a year, so that the party's right to bring an appeal of murder in the meantime might not be interfered with. This rule of the judges was not the result of judicial legislation, but the affirmance of a doctrine as old as the time of Britton.

But the distinguished writer was chiefly interested in dealing with the Criminal Law as it is or ought to be, and here he is eminently successful. The dogmatic portion of the book is conspicuous for the arrangement of the subject, for clearness of statement, and for vigorous and wholesome criticism. An illustration of this last quality is found in the remark that the maxim "Non est reus nisi mens sit rea," is "neither more nor less valuable than the other scraps of Latin which have found their way into the law, and which are generally used when counsel do not clearly know their own meaning." The book as a whole seems to us to be the best of the author's works, and must be of very great value to the student, the legislator, and the intelligent general reader.

Not much is to be expected of a law-book which is intended neither as a text-book nor a digest, but rather as a series of compact statements of the law, substantiated by very numerous citations of the important English and American decisions relating thereto. But in the 'Law of Trusts and Trustees,' by James H. Flint (San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.), the author has fallen far short of his limited ambition. The book is marked by much repetition, many erroneous or misleading statements, and a general lack of discrimination. In a word, the subject, and not the writer, has proved the master. As a book of reference for authorities the publication may have an occasional value as a supplement to Perry's treatise on the same subject.

'Bank-Officers, their Authority, Duty, and Liability,' by Albert S. Bolles (New York: Homans Publishing Co.), is a large treatise for so limited a subject; but bankers, for whom, as well as for lawyers, it was intended, will doubtless not find it too voluminous. The book shows the marks of careful study, is well written, and seems to be generally a safe guide. But an exception must be made as to the statement, on page 15, that "officers are justified in lending to a trustee on the pledge of trust stock, unless they have reason to believe that he intends to misapply the money." This slip arose from a failure to distinguish between an executor and a trustee.

'Dillon on Municipal Corporations' is deservedly regarded by the legal profession as a

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work without a rival on the subject of which it treats; and as it is nine years since the third edition was published, the fourth edition (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) will be gladly welcomed by the bar, especially as the author assures us that he has gone personally over the book, section by section, and changed and added to the text when it seemed necessary. In fact, so great has been the development of this branch of the law in the last nine years that the author might well have said that he had rewritten the work which has played so large a part in that development. The typography, from the University Press, is a model for law books.

In this respect a striking contrast is afforded by 'The Law of Railways,' by Charles Fisk Beach (San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.), which has been published in two volumes in the "Pony Series." It is to be regretted that a better form was not given to it. The book is not intended as a substitute for others on the same subject, but to be used as a supplement. It is in regard to the management of the internal affairs of railroad corporations, as distinguished from their relation to the public as carriers, that Mr. Beach's treatise will be found useful. Here the author goes more into detail, although it should be said that he has paid particular attention to the Inter-State Commerce Act and the decisions thereunder.

Early in the present year we called the attention of the bar to Mr. John D. Lawson's 'Rights, Remedies, and Practice' (Bancroft-Whitney Company), of which two volumes had then been published. Volumes iii., iv., v., vi., and vii. of this important and highly meritorious work have since appeared, thus completing the author's great task, with the exception of an index volume, which is promised. They have been prepared with the same care that characterized the first two, and more we need not say.

JAPANESE POTTERY.

Japanese Pottery, with Notes describing the thoughts and subjects employed in its decoration, and Illustrations from examples in the Bowes Collection. By James L. Bowes. Liverpool: Published by the Author. Pp. 576.

A GLANCE at the opening pages of Mr. Bowes's sumptuous book shows that the author claims to have brought together a collection of Japanese pottery so complete, as representing provinces, makers, and marks, that he ventures to imply that the Japanese themselves will in the future be obliged to appeal to it to learn about their own pottery. It devolves upon us, therefore, to determine, if possible, how far his claim is justified, and first of all by answering the question, What should such a collection include?

In any comprehensive study of the potter's art in Japan one must collect and study the common ware made for kitchen utensils, the vessels used by the better classes, and the brilliantly decorated and even gaudy vases, plaques, and grotesque figures made expressly for export. A museum of art or an ethnological museum would be justified in excluding the latter class of objects—a museum of art, in that the decoration would not represent the true art feeling of the people; and the ethnological museum, in that the objects are not such as the Japanese find use for. Pieces of this nature might find a home in some industrial art museum, though even here their influence, on the whole, would be pernicious.

Any complete collection of Japanese pottery which is to furnish material for a work on the subject, should include only those objects made for the Japanese, and representing, of course, only things in accordance with Japanese taste and traditions; and these products should cover the whole range of fictile ware. A collection, even for an art museum, would not be true if it included only pieces having great intrinsic beauty; or, to put it in another way, if an art museum were to preserve only the beautiful pottery of any country, nine-tenths of the objects of this nature from England, Belgium, Holland, and Germany, and a goodly portion of the pottery of other countries, would have to be banished. Applying the same rule throughout a museum of art, other collections would suffer in the same way—rusty iron-work, rough glass and begrimed wood-carvings, faded fabrics and fragments of ancient sculpture, pewter dishes and roofing-tiles, patina-covered coins and indistinguishable paintings of mediæval age—all would be discarded. The idea is at once so monstrous that no museum of art yet founded would listen to such a scheme for an instant. In the minds of many it has been found difficult to draw a hard-and-fast line between the collections proper for a museum of art and those for an ethnological museum. An acute student of classical antiquities regards as proper for an art museum all objects from nations which have been conspicuous as producers of art work in any line, and in these lines the collections should be exhaustive. The ethnological museum finds it still more difficult to draw the line, but its material comes usually from savage and barbarous peoples. This division does not, of course, exclude from the museum of art objects of savage and barbaric art.

Returning, then, to what a complete collection of Japanese pottery should be, a collector finds the following groups to study. First, the common ware of the masses, such as kitchen utensils, jugs, pans, etc. A few of these might well be got together to show how tasteful even common pottery is in an artistic country. This pottery, when of fair age, is usually the rarest to get, for, being in daily use and without value, it is when broken thrown away. Second, pottery for table use; objects used by the more refined classes for the tea ceremonies, for the writing-table, for the serving of wine, for flowers, and for house adornment generally, and for heating and illuminating purposes. The work of the amateur should also be collected, as showing a curious phase of the art, nor must be overlooked pieces noted for their age or ugliness, but which excite the admiration of the tea-lover, not for their beauty (for they have none), but because they come from the site of some famous kiln, or were used by some celebrated man in past times. Such specimens are breathlessly examined by the *chajin* in Japan in much the same way that an American, if it were possible to induce any reverence in him, might examine the boots of Christopher Columbus or the jack-knife of George Washington. The collection would not be complete without examples of the pre-historic and early lathe-turned pottery of the country.

If a collector were to limit himself to any portion of this scheme, he would obviously select the pottery made for the better classes—the poet, the artist, the scholar, the lover of tea and flowers—just as in collecting pictures he would not care for the painted signs, the pictorial advertisements, and least of all for the stuff painted for the foreign market, but would collect paintings which had adorned the houses of cultivated people. Above all, no collection would be worthy the name that did not include as far as possible the marks of the various potters. In every important work on pottery, silverware, and the like, the marks have been assiduously collected and recorded, for, after all, if the piece is genuine, the mark is the first and last source of appeal.

With these brief suggestions as to what a collection of Japanese pottery should embrace, let us examine the beautiful work before us We are not concerned with the statement on the title-page that the author is "His Imperial Majesty's Honorary Consul for Japan at Liverpool," but we are with the statement that he is joint author of 'Keramic Art of Japan,' for, in the ten years that have elapsed since the publication of that work, he should have awakened a sadder and a wiser man. A casual survey of the objects figured prepares one to understand why he is at variance with nearly all collectors and artists who have been fascinated by the intrinsic beauty of genuine Japanese pottery. Not only does he find their tastes in this respect unaccountable, but he criticises a little manual issued in 1878 by the National Museum in Japan as being singularly deficient in information in regard to the brilliant development of the artistic taste of the country at an epoch to which he assigns many of his pieces. In his preface he acknowledges his indebtedness to a number of Japanese friends for assistance in verifying or correcting his classification, and he thanks them for specimens, some of them heirlooms, which were necessary to complete the sequence of several of the groups; Government departments even aiding him in this.

From these positive statements one prepares himself to enjoy a book which for the first time is to ascribe Japanese pottery to its rightful dates, makers, and provinces; to expect, also, that all the important makers at least, and all the provinces in which pottery was produced to any extent, are to be represented either by figures, marks, or descriptions. It is true, the author has never been in Japan, has never come in contact with Japanese connoisseurs, or spent days poring over the treasures in some musty *kura;* has never sat down with the amiable Rokubei, the dignified Dohachi, the good-natured Yeiraku; has never had the opportunity of gathering words of wisdom from the lips of Kohitsu, Machida, Tanemura, Maida, Niuagawa, and other experts. It is amazing to learn, however, that this not only makes no difference, but that such an experience is rather a hindrance to the proper forming of a correct judgment in regard to the subject. According to this dictum, then, we are to believe that Prof. Fenellosa's profound knowledge of Japanese art would have been more trustworthy had he obtained his information by roaming about England and the Continent; and that Dr. Anderson's collection of kakemono in the British Museum would have been far better if he had picked it up from bric-à-brac shops and auction sales.

Let us see the result of this confidence on the author's part as affecting the proper identification of the specimens he figures. The following corrections we make with the kindliest—nay, the most sympathetic—feeling, knowing the insuperable difficulties one must encounter so far away from the "base of supply." We pass over for the present Mr. Bowes's numerous mistakes in confounding the name of the kiln with that of the potter, the marks which have been wrongly read, and, above all, the erroneous dates assigned to so many specimens, and come at once to the vital question as to whether the attribution of many of his pieces is correct or not. If correct, then his book may be taken as a guide, as far as it goes. More than a third of the specimens figured come under the category of export goods, many of them exceedingly beautiful, but we

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are concerned only with such as truly represent native pottery. And here we might apply the author's own words, which are quite just in regard to the old Japanese porcelain in the Dresden Museum, made, as every one now knows, by the Japanese expressly for export. Mr. Bowes says: "Turning, now, from this old Japan porcelain, which, as regards the form of the objects and their decoration, is at variance with the taste of Japan," etc.

Fortunately for the student, the plates, some of which have done service before in 'Keramic Art of Japan,' are marvels of the chromolithographer's skill, and the book is also illustrated by many excellent heliotypes. The pieces are so well depicted that one can tell at a glance the character of the specimen figured. On the plate lettered as Satsuma are specimens from three other provinces, a bottle from Tamba, a square bottle of old Kiyomidzu (called *amamori* by the Japanese, from a peculiar staining which resembles the rain stains on the paper *shoji*), and a *choku* from Higo. On the plate marked Province of Higo there are figured six specimens, only one of which belongs to that province; two and probably three of them are Chikuzen, and two of them Satsuma (Mishima, white on gray). Of the nine specimens figured and described as Higo, only three are from that province, and one of these has been defaced by subsequent decoration. On the plate marked Suruga not one of the specimens figured was made in that province. The two specimens figured as Awaji of the eighteenth century were made within thirty years at Shido, Sanuki. (This will add an important province to Mr. Bowes's list, and if he can get examples of the beautiful work of Minzan and Nawohachi and of the Tomita, Yashima, Takamatsu, and other ovens, the province will be fairly represented.)

Nine specimens are catalogued as belonging to the province of Nagato, four of which appear on Plate lviii, one on Plate lvii, and one on Plate lxvi. Following the catalogue numbers in the description, we find No. 1 is Shino, Owari. No. 2 is an exceedingly rare and old specimen of Onohara, Tamba. (The figure of this specimen is so accurate that we venture to say its bottom is unglazed and bears the impression of cloth on a dark-red clay.) No. 3 is Mishima Satsuma obscured by subsequent decoration. Nos. 5 and 6 are not Nagato. No. 7 is questionable, and Nos. 8 and 9 from the description alone should be recognized by the novice as Kiyomidzu, Kioto, and if further proof were needed, the mark is given which, though unintelligible to the author, is that of Kitei, one of the typical Kiyomidzu makers.

Why go further? Yet it is impossible to pass over such a glaring error as in the case of the specimen figured in Plate lxvi, as belonging to the province of Kii, and made by Sanrakuyen. Shades of Zengoro! It was not made within three hundred miles of that province, and there is no such maker as Sanrakuyen. On the decline of a ware made at an oven in Kii, a potter was hired to revive, if possible, the ware in Tokio, Province of Musashi. The oven was called by the poetical name of Sanrakuyen. The essay of this oven proved such a dismal failure that, after a few years, it was abandoned. The pieces bear either the large or small mark, and sometimes the painted mark of Sanrakuyen. As this specimen was figured in a plate that has already done service in the work of Audsley and Bowes, published nearly ten years ago, time enough has elapsed to have corrected the error.

On Plate xl. a piece is figured as Omi, whereas it was made in Ofuke village, Owari. A plastic figure is described as made by Nagami Iwao, Province of Yamashiro, whereas it was made by a potter named Nagami in the village of Yamashita, Province of Iwami. (This will add another province to Mr. Bowes's list.) With the exception of two tea-jars, the ten specimens described as Idzumo are all of the yellow, buff, and mottled brown glazes. The example No. 981 was not made in the early part of the century, but within thirty years, evidently under Government direction, as the decorated model may be seen in the National Museum, Tokio. There is not a suggestion in Mr. Bowes's collection of the vigorous work of Zenshiro, the beautiful productions of the Rakuzan oven, or the remarkable white glaze and blue decorated wares of two hundred years ago. Similarly, under the province of Settsu, the poverty of his collection is shown by cataloguing eleven pieces of Sanda celedon, mostly modern; one piece of Kikko; a trap for cuttle fish, and two pieces made in Kobe for export. Not a word, however, about the brilliant glazes of the Sakurai oven, the pure white and quaintly decorated pieces of Kosobe, the varied and remarkable products of Kiuzan, and the æsthetic work of the early Niniwa oven. Mr. Bowes's estimate as to the artistic quality of the pottery of Tamba, Totomi, and certain other provinces is invalidated because his material, as revealed by his catalogue, is altogether too meagre and imperfect upon which to base an opinion.

The work, for what relates to the identification of pottery, is a striking example of how far one may go astray who undertakes to study the products of a country from just the opposite side of the globe.

Emin Pasha and the Rebellion at the Equator: A Story of nine months' experiences in the last of the Sudan Provinces. By A. J. Mounteney-Jephson. With the revision and coöperation of Henry M. Stanley. With map and numerous illustrations. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1890. 8vo, pp. xxiv., 490.

MR. MOUNTENEY-JEPHSON'S work is more than a mere narrative of personal adventure. It gives an account of the downfall of the Equatorial Province, and furnishes, as well, an important chapter in the history of Mr. Stanley's expedition. There is nothing in it of the dry, official tone of a report, but it is an unaffected, straightforward statement of what the author saw, told with more than ordinary descriptive power. Evidently Mr. Jephson is a good observer and a shrewd judge of men, as his life-like portraiture of Emin and his principal officers plainly shows. Endowed with great courage and a high spirit, which, however, he kept carefully under control, and a warm heart, he won the confidence and affection of his companions, both white and black. The simple words with which he tells what enabled him and his fellow-officers during all the "darkness and misery" to be "steadfast and comparatively cheery," best show what manner of man he is. "First, the love and interest we all had for our work. Second, the implicit trust and confidence we have ever had in our leader. And third, and I think not least, the strong friendship which has always existed between Stairs, Nelson, Parke, and myself." Referring to Barttelot's death, he says:

"The hardest part of the experiences a man travelling in Africa has to go through, is not the physical hardships, starvation, or disappointments, but the sufferings and deaths of his comrades, European or negro. The hardships and starvation may be forgotten; but the deaths of such men as Barttelot and Jameson, and of our faithful Zanzibaris, must ever remain fresh in my memory as the saddest of the many sad memories which rise in my mind whenever I think of these past three years. That Barttelot had done his duty bravely and honestly I never for a moment doubted. He may have been injudicious, he may have been hasty. The story of that terrible time will never, I fear, be correctly known; but whatever may have happened, any one who really knew him must intuitively recognize that he was honorable and upright and brave, and that, like Lawrence, he tried to do his duty."

Mr. Jephson wisely confines himself to a narrative of what took place during his absence from the expedition, and his book should be read before one reads the second volume of 'In Darkest Africa,' for the clear understanding of that part of Mr. Stanley's story. He was detailed, it may be remembered, to accompany Emin Pasha to his province to aid him in preparing his people for their removal. His first impressions were decidedly favorable. The "exquisitely clean and neat" stations; the smartly dressed officers and soldiers; the contented and happy people; the numerous flocks and herds; the vegetable gardens, the cotton fields and banana groves which lined the lake shore and the river bank, all presented a most attractive picture. Had he been a mere passing traveller like Dr. Felkin, he would doubtless have written as enthusiastically as this gentleman of what Emin had accomplished for his people and his province. The whole credit, however, does not belong to him, for Mr. Jephson says: "I could not help being struck with the fact that nearly all the good and lasting things had been brought into the province by Sir Samuel Baker." Many of the old soldiers often spoke with affection and pride of him and of Lady Baker, or Nyadué, "the Morning Star, by which name she was called in admiration of her fair-haired beauty."

But it was not long before the true condition of the province was revealed to Stanley's officer. He found that one of the Pasha's two battalions had been for four years in open rebellion. They garrisoned the northern stations, and their discontent arose from his attempt, after the first Mahdist invasion, to evacuate these stations in order to concentrate his forces near the lake. Although the remainder of the soldiers were still loyal, they not only were unwilling to leave the province, but were also exceedingly sceptical as to Stanley's having come from Egypt. This was owing in part to their persistent disbelief in the fall of Khartum, the wretched condition of Stanley's people, and to the fact that, by a strange oversight, he brought them no letters from their friends in Egypt. As to the natives, although about the stations immediately under Emin's influence they seemed to be well-disposed, nevertheless, as he journeyed northward he "could see by the many marks of deserted villages, and the almost entire absence of cattle or goats, that the soldiers evidently robbed the natives to such an extent that they were forced to leave their villages and cattle and remove their goods away from their thievish influence." This had caused the "Turks" to be regarded with a most intense hatred, which showed itself in uprisings and massacres before Mr. Jephson's escape.

Gradually the conviction was forced upon him that the province was in fact only a miniature of Khedivial Egypt, with its thin veneer of civilization overlaying an unbounded corruption, and with the same grinding oppression of the people—with this important exception, that Emin was no Ismail. Rigidly u right in his conduct of affairs, not one of the many accusations brought against him was found to be true. This state of things was not unnatural, considering the fact that of his fifty-six Egyptian officers and clerks there

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was scarcely one in the province "who was not at that moment undergoing a sentence of banishment from Egypt for such crimes as murder, rebellion, or highway robbery." His other officers were mainly Sudanese, entirely under the influence of the Egyptians, while the soldiers were natives from the various tribes in the surrounding region. It is not surprising, then, that these men were unwilling to leave a country where they lived in luxury unattainable in Egypt, nor that the arrival of Stanley was made the pretext to seize their Governor and Mr. Jephson, on the ground that they were to be removed by force and enslaved to the English. The judgment of the author's Niam-Niam servant was a just one: "Master, these are a rotten people; the good material in them is not sufficient to make a hut, but there is enough evil in them to build a palace."

The story of the imprisonment and the proceedings of the rebel council is exceedingly interesting. During the whole time it is evident that Mr. Jephson conducted himself with great tact and courage. He did not hesitate on one occasion to bitterly reproach the rebel officers for their treatment of him, so contrary to the strict law of Mohammedan hospitality, thereby compelling their admiration and assent. "By Allah!" exclaimed their leader, "he has spoken truly and he shall join his people." It is impossible to say what would have been the ultimate fate of Emin and Mr. Jephson at the hands of the Egyptians—both finally condemned to be hung—if an invasion of the Mahdists, or Donagla, as they were called, and the capture of the important station Rejaf, had not caused the rebels, stricken with fear, to set them at liberty. The province had become thoroughly disorganized and well-nigh defenceless, while the officers spent their time in wrangling and in drunken carousals. Emin was entreated by them to resume the government and to rescue them from the impending danger, as the Mahdists were only awaiting reinforcements from Khartum to overrun the whole province. It was under these circumstances that Emin joined Stanley and that Mr. Jephson's story comes to a close.

Our author had comparatively few opportunities for observation, but he made good use of those which he had, and his book is full of bright descriptions of the stations and the lake and river scenery. Especially successful is he in conveying vivid impressions of his companions, the false-hearted Egyptians, fawning and obsequious to-day, treacherous and insolent to-morrow. Here is a warning given by one of the worst of them to him: "In this country there are only Sudanese and Egyptians. If a Sudanese comes at you with scowls on his face and a loaded gun, while on the other hand an Egyptian comes to you with a carpet and a friendly salutation, turn to the Sudanese; he with his loaded gun will do you less harm than the Egyptian with his smiles and carpet." Far different were the three Peacock Dervishes, "fine-looking fellows of the Arab type," who came with a letter to Emin from the Mahdist leader, Omar Saleh. They were dressed in white shirts of native-made cotton cloth, which reached nearly to their knees and were "patched all over with bits of red, blue, green, yellow, and spotted calico. . . . Slung across their backs were thongs of leather, to which were attached numerous little round, oblong, and triangular leather cases, containing different verses from the Koran. Each man had a small volume of the Koran," while for arms he had a large, straight, double-edged sword, and three immense spears from twelve to fifteen feet long. They were manly fellows who, though cruelly tortured by the Egyptians, refused to reveal any information in regard to the strength of the Donagla. Eventually, "they were taken down to the river and beaten to death with clubs, and their bodies were thrown to the crocodiles."

Among the curious customs which Mr. Jephson noticed was this of the Sudanese on the occasion of a marriage: "On the evening before the wedding, a number of young Sudanese gathered in front of the bride's hut, and, forming a circle, began to sing and whip each other with hippopotamus hide whips until the blood came. This, it appears, was to show the bride what a plucky race her husband was sprung from." The natives of whom he saw the most were the Baris, who name their boys after animals and their girls after flowers. They decorate their pottery slightly, and pave the floors of their huts with little triangular pieces of broken pottery, so that they "resemble black mosaic floors, so beautifully, evenly, and closely are they fitted together." The Baris have large herds of cattle which are kept principally for their milk. "Women are never permitted to milk or to meddle in any way with the cows." When Emin and Mr. Jephson reached Wadelai after their release from captivity, "a sheep was killed, and we were made to step over the blood; some of the blood was also dashed against the lintels of the doors of our houses for luck"—a curious reminiscence of Israel in Egypt.

Mr. Jephson has comparatively little to tell of the fauna of the province, but he mentions that, on one occasion, while going down the bank of the Nile, he saw "an immense herd of nearly 200 elephants. . . . This great number of huge black bodies moving slowly along with their long white tusks gleaming in the sun, was perfectly overpowering. Wherever you looked, for the space of half a mile, nothing was to be seen but elephants marching sedately along at the foot of the mountains. The very face of the plain seemed moving."

The central figure of Mr. Jephson's book is, of course, Emin Pasha, and the man is brought before the reader with almost photographic distinctness. His fine qualities, his generosity, his integrity, his devotion to the welfare of his province, his care for his people and faith in them, his scientific ardor, are all faithfully delineated. So, too, are his weaknesses, his unmanly sensitiveness, his vacillation, his inability to tell unwelcome truths, his lack of moral courage, his moodiness and ingratitude. The Pasha evidently strongly attached his young companion to him, and only a sense of duty has impelled the latter to write as plainly as he has done. His book, with the exception of the closing chapter, was all written before Emin showed his hostility to his rescuers. The last chapter, in refutation of recent German insinuations and accusations, adds other proofs of Emin's "causeless resentment" and base ingratitude towards men who had perilled their lives a thousand times to help him. "Emin can dream noble things," says Mr. Jephson, in conclusion, "but he cannot act them, because, unfortunately, he is nearly always below his best self."

Mr. Stanley, of whom there is a fine etched portrait, writes a warmly appreciative prefatory letter, in which he takes occasion to refer strongly to the want of an international copyright law. There is an excellent index, with a map and many interesting illustrations. Among these is a charming group of "African ragamuffins" and a dwarf with bow and arrow, by Mrs. Stanley.

A Boy's Town, described for *Harper's Young People*. By W. D. Howells. Harper & Bros. 1890.

THE defect of Mr. Howells's description of his boyhood, as a book for boys, is that he writes of it from a man's point of view. He has so disillusioned himself that he seems constantly to patronize his small self, to apologize for him, and in more than one passage he is frankly ashamed of him. This critical temper, which is constantly turning the boy round to see what an incomplete creature he was, and to show off his weak points, interferes with the pleasure of the perusal; and the criticism is not confined to the little fellow, but takes in the whole life of the village as far as Mr. Howells remembers it, and in particular the religious and moral ideas in which he was bred. What we have is only incidentally a boy's book; essentially it is a study of a Western town and its life from the materials which have survived in the author's memory and which he has reflected upon. It is true that the matter of the volume is mainly anecdotes and reminiscences of the town and its features, the boys and their sports, studies and pets, the family life, the printing-office, the holidays, and such heterogeneous things as sometimes come into a boy's purview, and, by some trick of their own, stick in his memory; but the binding element in all this, the continuous strain, is an unfavorable criticism of it all, to the effect that the life of the people was very limited, and the boy in an embryo state of foolishness, crude ideas, cruelties, ridiculous errors, and so on. There is a lack of cheerfulness, of spirits, of wholesome enjoyment, which makes the whole rather painful. There is so much self-pity for the boy that one thinks he must have had a very unhappy time; and yet it appears that he had his share in most of the things that are good for boys, and suffered only as a sensitive nature does in companionship with rougher spirits. One can see through the cloud of comment, nevertheless, the principal elements in the life of boyhood on the Miami forty years ago, and if he can bring out of his own boyhood some sympathy for the children, he may counteract the author's unfortunate pessimism.

My Study Fire. By Hamilton Wright Mabie. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1890.

THE title of Mr. Mabie's volume is apt, and suggests that vein of reverie which distinguishes it and classes it at once with books of literary sentiment. The fire is described in all its stages, with the eye of a lover who turns from it only to see the books whose titles it lights up, or the autumnal and wintry views outside to which it stands in cheerful relief. Wife and children also necessarily sit in its glow; the scene is that of the student's quiet home and paradise. The seasons, as they pass, bring Christmas and New Year's and the first snowfall, the earliest flight of returning birds; and with these well-worn motives of reverie the text unfolds its story in a loitering and desultory way, touching on nature and on genius, on Goethe and Alexander Smith, Amiel and Méryon, Lowell and the 'Imitation of Christ,' changefully and irresponsibly, without emphasis and without weariness. It is especially an indoor book, though once the author wanders out from his fire to tell of the delights of a journey on snow-shoes; and once he interpolates a kind of story of a sort that we have long ceased to meet with, and whose absence in current literature has not been greatly lamented. Mr. Mabie's thought is not exacting of the reader's attention; it is very smooth-flowing, and one has only to float on

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the stream; his fancy is pleasantly active, and his style equable, refined, and clear. He writes at leisure and must be read at leisure, for entertainment of a quiet sort; he succeeds in finding a middle way between poetry and prose, reflection and sentiment, books and life, and he brings with him much cultivation of taste and real regard for the great work of the past; but his vignettes of winter weather and of fireside seclusion are the most charming part of his labors, or, perhaps we might more fitly say, his recreation.

The Autobiography of Joseph Jefferson. The Century Company. 1890.

"THE reason why so few good books are written," said the late Walter Bagehot, "is that so few people who can write, know anything"; and by this he meant that the literary class, leading a retired existence, has little experience of life in its broader aspects. Unfortunately, those who are in the thick of the struggle, and who are, therefore, in a position to know something, cannot write—most of them. When, by any accident, the man who knows something can write, we get a book we take to our hearts: this is one reason of the success of Grant's 'Memoirs.' During the past year the readers of the *Century Magazine* have been delighting in two series of articles, neither of which was written by a professional author, the brilliant "Letters from Japan," of Mr. John Lafarge, a painter, and the "Autobiography" of Mr. Joseph Jefferson, an actor. The latter is now before us complete in a book by itself, and a rereading of its chapters confirms one in the opinion that the distinguished comedian belongs among the people who know something and who also can write.

Mr. Jefferson's style is easy and flowing, like that of Mr. Booth (in the two brief papers written five years ago for 'Actors and Actresses'). It is that of a man who has kept good company all his life, who has spoken every night the chosen words of the dramatists, from Shakspere to Sheridan. The actor's enforced and daily familiarity with the vocabulary of the masters of speech ought in itself to be a training in the apt use of words. Mr. Jefferson's style has the cadence and the color of good dramatic writing, with a charm which seems to be his own. There are no purple patches anywhere in this book; there is much quiet and playful humor, and an ever-present kindliness of tone. Mr. Jefferson reveals here what Bagehot called "one of the rarest of artistic charms, that of magnanimous autobiography." Quaint and odd as were many of the personages whom he recalls for us in these pages, he sketches them with unfailing charity, with never a hint of acerbity, and with very remarkable skill. Some of his full-length likenesses are worthy to go in the gallery with Colley Cibber's incomparable reproduction of Mrs. Bracegirdle, one of the most marvellously life-like pen portraits in all literature.

It is with Cibber's 'Apology' that Mr. Jefferson's 'Autobiography' is to be classed rather than with the merely amusing 'Wandering Patentee' of Tate Wilkinson, the 'Reminiscences' of Michael Kelly, and the 'Retrospections' of John Bernard in England; or, in America, with the 'Recollections' of William B. Wood, the 'Thirty Years' of Joe Cowell, or the 'Theatrical Management' of Sol Smith. Quite as amusing as any of these, and quite as abundant in anecdote, Mr. Jefferson's book, like Cibber's, is something more than merely amusing. It has a stronger backbone, a wider philosophy. We find in it not a little of the quality which gives value to Fromentin's discussion of the old masters. We see here the judgment of an expert with broad sympathies and a chastened taste. Any discussion of the principles of an art with an intelligent artist is fertile—with an artist, that is, who has intelligence beyond what is needed for the exercise of his profession. This is what we gain in reading Cibber on the one side and Fromentin on the other; and a like profit can be had from this book of Mr. Jefferson's. It is a book that most people will read with pleasure, and one from which those who seek light can learn much.

Note, for example, the author's description (pp. 108-9) of the way in which Burton and Burke played into each other's hands, and the account (p. 384) of the discussion with the late Charles (James) Mathews about the necessity the actor is under of enlarging his manner when acting in a larger theatre than he is accustomed to appear in. Compare this last assertion with the criticism (p. 153) of Mathews as *Charles Surface*, which was a failure because the comedian could not rid himself of his modern air and of the trifling manners of the man-about-town of to-day, quite out of keeping with the more robust character of Sheridan's hero, and remark that Murdoch succeeded where Mathews failed, because he gave color, dignity, and picturesqueness to the older characters, playing them in the spirit in which they had been conceived. Only less instructive is the criticism (p. 138) of the amateur actors who—like Hackett and Mrs. Mowatt in the past—have gone on the professional stage after they were mature, and when they had acquired faults almost ineradicable.

Especially worthy of careful consideration is the whole of chapter xvi., containing Mr. Jefferson's "Reflections on the Art of Acting." M. Coquelin, Mr. Irving, Signor Salvini have lately talked freely about their calling, but no one of them is shrewder in seizing the elemental principles of the histrionic art than Mr. Jefferson in these pages, nor is any more adroit in the selection of apt illustrations. Evidently Mr. Jefferson's opinion on Diderot's "Paradox" is closely akin to M. Coquelin's: "For myself, I know that I act best when the heart is warm and the head is cool"; and it is pleasant to find the foremost comedians of France and America in accord. Equally interesting is the American comedian's elucidation of "dramatic action" (pp. 185–7), of its vital necessity, and of the impossibility of moving an audience without it, whatever may be the merely external "literary merit" of the play. Elsewhere Mr. Jefferson discusses the disappearance of the old "stock companies," and makes a strong plea in favor of the present system of travelling "combinations," not quite as convincing as his argument in favor of the right of an actor to modify the text of an old play in accordance with modern taste. Here we think Mr. Jefferson is quite right. Good-naturedly he quotes the late William Warren's jest that the autobiographer's recent performances of the "Rivals" recall Buchanan Read's line, "And Sheridan twenty miles away." But the physical conditions of the theatre are always changing, and, to keep the stage, a play must needs be modified to meet these changed conditions. Mr. Jefferson has done to Sheridan only what is done to Shakspere every time "Hamlet" is acted.

For the benefit of those who may not have seen any of the articles which make up this book as they appeared, month by month, in the *Century*, it may be said that Mr. Jefferson tells the story of his life from his earliest appearances on the stage, in a little village called Chicago, to his triumphant success as *Rip Van Winkle* in Australia, England, and America, going on to the more recent revival of the "Rivals," and ending with a humorously pathetic account of some of his neighbors when he retires to rest at his plantation in Louisiana. As we follow the adventures of the actor, we meet with quaint characters, we hear good stories, we learn much about the art of acting, we have many portraits of prominent actors and actresses of the past, and we find ourselves more and more drawn toward the author as he stands revealed before us in his own pages.

The book has been beautifully printed at the De Vinne press; and its illustrations are of the variety and excellence to which the Century Company has accustomed us in its publications. The cover is a most successful novelty, recalling that of Mr. Howard Pyle's 'Robin Hood' by its decorative quality, at once rich and simple. The design (by Mr. G. W. Edwards) is embossed on veritable vellum, "blind-tooled" on the sides and touched with gold on the back.

On the Hills. By Frederick Starr. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 1890.

THIS work consists of a series of elementary essays on geological topics, in a style fitted to attract young readers, although there is no preface to tell us that such is the object of their preparation. The best part of the book is the good-humored personal element, with narrative of the author's field experience, by which the essays are brought down to a form of statement that boys may easily appreciate. The brighter readers of such a book may be led to the excellent result of going out on the hills themselves, and discovering that they too can find stories that are worth telling, for they will be flavored with the delight of personal effort.

Some of the pages are too lightly written, and at times the difficulties of the subject are too greatly simplified; a more advanced teacher might hesitate where Prof. Starr asserts without qualification, but such assertion seems to be regarded as an essential of "popular" scientific style. The chapters on fossils describe so many species that are far beyond the success of the ordinary collector that the beginner will be disappointed if he attempts to follow them out doors; indeed, they represent the author's experience in the museum or with his books rather than on the hills, and for this reason they have less value than the others. The chapters on physical geology will lead the youthful investigator to better hunting-grounds. The glacial moraines, the waterfalls and gorges, the ringing rocks are accessible to all who live in their neighborhood; but the hadrosaurus, the ichthyosaurus, and the rest are to be found only in museums by most of us. Occasionally the author's personality is a little too prominent, as in the excursion to Kittatinny Mountain up the Delaware Valley. The painful experience of the younger members of his walking party is in such contrast to his own success that the story can hardly serve except as a discouragement to the "lower-class men;" and when Prof. Starr calls Kittatinny "my mountain," he must arouse many Pennsylvanians who love it with him to assert their claims to partial ownership at least. This fine mountain wall was well called endless by the Indians, but it can hardly be said to extend "1,500 miles as one great ridge from Massachusetts to Alabama." It does not reach Massachusetts, and in parts of its course it is too much doubled on itself to be called "one great ridge." Indeed, the real personality of Kittatinny is not clearly brought out; it deserves

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further study and fuller history. We hope Prof. Starr will write more books, and carry his work on the hills further towards a scientific end.

The Women of Turkey and their Folk-Lore. The Christian Women. By Lucy M. J. Garnett. With an Ethnological Map, and introductory chapters on the Ethnography of Turkey and Folk-Conceptions of Nature by John S. Stuart-Glennie, M.A. London: David Nutt. 1890.

MISS GARNETT is already favorably known to students of popular literature by her 'Greek Folk-Songs,' in which she likewise had the co-operation of Mr. Stuart-Glennie. The present work is of more general interest, and is a more valuable contribution to folk-lore. The prefatory material cannot be examined here at any length, especially as we recently (in a review of Taylor's 'Origin of the Aryans') considered one of the topics treated by Mr. Stuart-Glennie, the European origin of the Aryans. Of Mr. Stuart-Glennie's theory of folk-lore we can now say only that it is a compromise between the views of those who hold that mythology is the outcome of the civilized mind, and the views of those who believe that it is the creation of the savage mind.

The most interesting and valuable part of the work is Miss Garnett's, and of it we can speak with the highest praise. The present volume is devoted to the women of the Christian nationalities; the one which is to follow will treat of the Semitic and Moslem women. The author takes up in turn the Vlach, Greek, Armenian, Bulgarian, and Frank women, and describes the social status and activities, family ceremonies, beliefs and superstitions, and folk-poesy, which last includes national traditions, religious legends, animal stories, folk songs, etc., of each nationality. Some of the material relating to popular songs and tales has already appeared in other collections; but that pertaining to customs and social observances is entirely new, and constitutes the chief value and interest of the work. Miss Garnett gives a very encouraging account of the Christian women of Turkey, and the advance which they have recently made in education; if the next volume shows any similar advance on the part of the Semitic and Moslem women, we need not despair of the future of the country, which meanwhile presents a most attractive field for missionary labor.

Notes on Military Hygiene, for Officers of the Line. A syllabus of lectures at the U. S. Infantry and Cavalry School. By Alfred A. Woodhull, Major Medical Dept., Bt. Lt.-Col. U. S. Army. John Wiley & Sons. 1890. Pp. 150.

MAJOR WOODHULL has made an admirably clear and succinct presentation of the principal hygienic rules applicable to soldiers gathered in barracks and encampments. He has aimed at providing a manual for the pocket, which every line officer may carry, and which shall give brief, but definite instruction in everything that pertains to the health of the men and the sanitary condition of quarters. Among other things there are chapters on clothing, food, habitations, sewage, water, etc., all so full of valuable suggestions that not only every army officer, but every officer of a hospital, a school, an asylum, and even every head of a family, may greatly profit by familiarity with this little book.

Modern Ghosts. Harper & Bros. 1890.

THIS collection of gruesome tales, translated from Maupassant, Alarcón, Kielland, Kompert, Becquer, and Magherini-Graziani, is introduced by Mr. George William Curtis in an agreeable preface; but after these preliminary pages the way of the reader is through horrors, the charnel-house, and that panic of the mind which is always fascinating in fiction, however fearful in reality. The first tale, by Maupassant, is the most powerful and the most original in its motive, though the terrors which it holds in suggestion are not so well worked out as those which it embodies physically. The second tale, by the same author, is more artistic, and has one scene of the true weird in it, while the analysis of the state of the mind in the actor, and the study of the river as a source of vague fear, are in the best style of Maupassant's minute and slowly elaborated art. A third story of a tall woman blends the ghastly and grotesque with success, and secures the effect aimed at. Of the remaining tales none reach a very high excellence. In all the series one cannot but observe the peculiar opposition of the Latin feeling for the horrible to the English feeling. The stories are more in earnest than our own race-genius tolerates. There is lacking that flash of humor which relieves the terrible and transforms it into a less shocking and intolerable aspect. The purely physical element is absorbing in it; and although the mind is struck with fear, it remains principally a bodily fear. Consequently, one must acknowledge that these tales are foreign in the sense that they do not appeal to us with their full native force; they are exotic; and though they satisfy the universal crude craving for the horrible, they do not seem sufficiently within the pale of nature to have our credit, and be accepted temporarily by the imagination. They are rather to be read as examples of foreign art.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Dr. C. C. Outings at Odd Times. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Blake, H. G. O. Thoreau's Thoughts: Selections. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Gaspé, P. A. de. The Canadians of Old. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Harte, Bret. A Ward of the Golden Gate. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Holmes, O. W. Over the Teacups. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Jephson, A. J. Emin Pasha and the Rebellion at the Equator. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $3.75.
Klauser, J. The Septonate, and the Centralization of the Tonal System. Milwaukee: William Rohlfing & Sons.
McCann, J. E. Songs from an Attic. Brentano's. $1.50.
Perry, Nora. After the Ball, and Other Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Petit, Rev. J. L. Architectural Studies in France. New ed. London: Geo. Bell & Sons.
Reading, J. H. The Ogowe Band: A Narrative of African Travel. Philadelphia: Reading & Co.
Reeves, A. M. The Finding of Wineland the Good: History of the Icelandic Discovery of America. London: H. Frowde; New York: Macmillan. $11.
Richards, Laura E. Captain January. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Riddell, Mrs. J. H. Princess Sunshine. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Riggs, J. D. S. In Latinum. Chicago: Albert & Scott. 50 cents.
Roberts, M. In Low Relief. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Roberts, S. In and Out of Book and Journal. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Robinson, W. C. The Law of Patents. 3 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Roldan, S. C. Notas de Viaje. Bogota: Libreria Colombiana.
Russell, W. C. A Marriage at Sea. John W. Lovell Co. 25 cents.
Russell, W. C. My Shipmate Louise. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Ryland, F. Chronological Outlines of English Literature. Macmillan & Co. $1.40.
Saint-Amand, I. de. Marie Louise and the Decadence of the Empire. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Saltus, E. Love and Lore. Belford Co. 50 cents.
Sanderson, E. Epitome of the World's History. Part I. Boston: Boston School Supply Co.
Sargeant, Adeline. The Great Mill Street Mystery. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Sargeant, Chas. S. The Silva of North America. Vol. I. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $25.
Schmidt, W. A. Geschichte der Deutschen Verfassungsfrage. Stuttgart: G. J. Göschen.
Schuyler, E. Peter the Great. New ed. 2 vols. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $6.
Schubin, O. Asbein. Worthington Co.
Scudder, Vida D. An Introduction to the Writings of John Ruskin. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.
Shepherd, H. A. The Antiquities of the State of Ohio. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $2.
Sherman, F. D. Lyrics for a Lute. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Stirling-Maxwell, Sir W. Annals of the Artists of Spain. New ed. 4 vols. London: John C. Nimmo.
Welsh, A. F. Digest of English and American Literature. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1.50.
Wilkinson, J. A. A Real Robinson Crusoe. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.

A Larger Print Edition.

Bellows' French Dictionary.

By JOHN BELLOWS. Revised by A. BELJAMS. 600 pages, 12mo, half roan, $1.25. French and English, English and French, both divisions on the same page. By JOHN BELLOWS. Masculine and feminine words shown by distinguishing types; conjugations of all the verbs; liaison marked in French part, and hints to aid pronunciation, together with Tables. The smaller fine edition, 32mo, full mor., $3.65; roan, $3.00.

Oliver Wendell Holmes says of it: "I have been reading a recent French work which has a great number of slang words in it; indeed, it was written partly to show up the new French vocabulary; but it has also a great number of familiar conversational phrases. Now I found that your little microscopic dictionary was equal to the hard task I put upon it, surprising me by the richness of its little columns and the exceedingly knowing way in which common French colloquialisms were rendered into corresponding English ones. I was fairly astonished that such an atom of a book could be such a cyclopædia of phrases. I consider the little lexicon the very gem of my library."

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